

---

# PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

---

## CONTENTS

|   | PAGE |
|---|------|
| FRANKLIN ROOSEVELT AND THE PUBLIC SERVICE . . . . . <i>Leonard D. White</i>         | 139  |
| THE RETURNING VETERAN . . . . . <i>Donald J. Sublette</i>                           | 147  |
| THE PERSONNEL PROGRAM OF THE UNITED NATIONS   |      |
| RELIEF AND REHABILITATION ADMINISTRATION . . . . . <i>William F. Howell</i>         | 154  |
| THE PERSONNEL FUNCTIONS IN MUNICIPAL MANAGEMENT . . . . . <i>Clarence E. Ridley</i> | 161  |
| INTERESTS OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATORS . . . . . <i>Edward K. Strong, Jr.</i>           | 166  |
| EMPLOYEE RECREATION AS A PERSONNEL FUNCTION . . . . . <i>Marshall Stalley</i>       | 174  |
| COURT DECISIONS . . . . .   | 179  |
| BOOK REVIEWS . . . . .  | 186  |
| ARTICLE ABSTRACTS . . . . .   | 192  |



PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW provides opportunities for the publication of factual information, and of materials that may represent divergent ideas, judgments, and opinions. The views expressed in articles, reviews, and other contributions are those of the authors, and may not be construed as the official views of the Civil Service Assembly unless so stated.

COPYRIGHT, 1945

---

THE CIVIL SERVICE ASSEMBLY

---

---

## THE CIVIL SERVICE ASSEMBLY

THE CIVIL SERVICE ASSEMBLY of the United States and Canada is a non-profit association of public agencies, officials, and private citizens engaged or interested in public personnel administration. The constituent public agencies of the Assembly are civil service commissions and boards, or personnel offices serving a particular governmental department or division. They serve national, state, and local governments of the United States, and Dominion, provincial, and local areas in Canada. The Assembly was organized in 1906 by officials and others actually engaged in civil service and other public personnel activities in order to provide mutual help in meeting common problems and to improve public personnel administration.

Membership in the Assembly is open to both agencies and individuals. Any public personnel agency vested with legal authority to administer a formal system of public employment is eligible for active agency membership, and any person actively engaged in the field of public personnel administration is eligible for active individual membership. Agencies and individuals interested in public personnel administration, but not actively engaged in the field, are eligible for affiliate membership. Students and apprentices in the field are eligible for student membership.

In addition to its quarterly journal, *Public Personnel Review*, the Assembly publishes a monthly informational *News Letter* and occasional special bulletins concerning topics of timely interest. It also publishes a comprehensive series of volumes, "Policies and Practices in Public Personnel Administration," dealing with the various functional aspects of the field.

The Assembly's Headquarters Office and Secretariat serves as a clearinghouse for information and research on public personnel matters. Inquiries concerning membership, dues, services, and other publications of the Assembly will receive prompt response without obligation. Address: Civil Service Assembly, 1313 East 60th Street, Chicago 37, Illinois.

---

# Franklin Roosevelt and the Public Service

LEONARD D. WHITE

ELEVEN PRESIDENTS have come and gone from the White House since Congress enacted the Civil Service Law of 1883. All of them extended the coverage of the merit system and most of them strengthened its provisions. The complex and varied form of the public service of 1945 is the composite product of Democratic and Republican presidents alike, all of whom realized the disastrous consequences of its domination by patronage and partisanship.

No president made greater contributions to the public service than Franklin D. Roosevelt. To him the country owes the greatest extension of the merit system ever made by any president, and even more to him is due the realization—only partial as yet—of the true functions and full purpose of personnel management in a vast public service irrevocably vested with substantial power.

## I

FRANKLIN ROOSEVELT became a member of the New York Civil Service Reform Association in 1907 at the age of twenty-five, and remained a member until his inauguration as president. From 1913 to 1920 he was assistant secretary of the Navy, where he acquired the remarkable familiarity with federal agencies and administrative methods which was to astonish so many after 1933. In 1920 he campaigned for the vice presidency; in 1929 he was elected governor of New York, where he served until he went to Washington. His interest in a better public service, sometimes apparently submerged under the pressure of events, was constant, and flowered in four extraordinary years of constructive effort from 1937 to 1940.

LEONARD D. WHITE is Professor of Public Administration, University of Chicago. During the period 1934 to 1937 he was a member of the United States Civil Service Commission, and later served as a member of the President's Committee on Civil Service Improvement.

In 1922 he wrote Harry Marsh, then secretary of the National Civil Service Reform League, "It is time to do more than stand by; it is time for constructive action to secure improved conditions." This call for action prefaced an ingenious proposal to put the merit system on a politically accepted foundation. He continued:<sup>1</sup>

I should like to see one of the great parties come forward with a challenge to the other party offering to enter into a compact to uphold and maintain the civil service; to recognize that while a few positions at the top—policy making positions—must, of necessity, be filled by party men, the overwhelming majority of government employees should be something more than party workers; that they would consistently strive so to conduct the national Civil Service Commission that party politics would in no way enter into either the original appointments or into promotions or demotions of those in the service. As a matter of practical fact, a very few years of agreement of this sort would find the civil service employees of the United States representative of all parties in an entirely fair manner; it would relieve them of the necessity which unfortunately so many of them now labor under, of having to be political sycophants with every change of administration; and it would raise the whole efficiency level of the government service. Where laws have failed, unofficial agreements are often successful.

In 1934 the President still had this program in his mind, but the problem of timing such a self-denying ordinance baffled even this master of timing.

The civil service record of Governor Roosevelt (1929–1933) was not impressive. His declarations of faith were clear and unswerving, but in the process of engineering the compromises by which politics and administration are geared together into effective policy he sometimes disappointed the advocates of the merit system. Thus he approved a bill giving the municipal court judges of New York City additional patronage positions, although he recognized the proposal as a "patronage grab."

<sup>1</sup> Roosevelt to Marsh, June 19, 1922; letter in files of the National Civil Service League.

He vetoed a bill providing for a division of classification in the Civil Service Commission, but at the same time reaffirmed his belief in the principle of job classification. Some thought the veto was in response to pressure from political organizations that preferred not to have professional control of salary schedules. He himself, however, called attention to the "extraordinary and autocratic powers" vested in an individual "to be appointed in a most extraordinary manner." In his veto message he also struck a prophetic note which, although discordant with the temper of the decade 1920-30 (dominated by the technicians), is widely accepted today when he added, "If we are to have a civil service czar, it is my belief that I would rather have a man trained in the efficiency of large affairs, than a professional 'efficiency expert.'"

The civil service record of Roosevelt as governor is certainly not one of retrogression, rather one that displayed less energy and creativeness than might have been expected. In a state which has had governors with such admirable civil service achievements as Cleveland and Hughes, Smith and Lehman, even a good over-all performance shines somewhat dimly by comparison.

## II

IT WAS AS President of the United States that Franklin Roosevelt made his great contribution to the public service. Here, too, there were early disappointments. It is not difficult to identify three broad periods of civil service evolution from 1933 to 1945. The first of these, from 1933 to 1937, was on the whole a period of civil service doldrums; the high winds blew strongly in the direction of economic and social reform, and administrative improvement was neglected. The second period, from 1937 to 1940, was one of magnificent achievement. The third period, from 1940 to 1945, was one of readjustment to the conditions of crisis and war, forced into being while the promise of the second was still in large measure to be fulfilled.

The momentous years of the first term were unsuited to civil service advance, but it is questionable whether they were necessarily years of civil service neglect. They were years of new programs, emergency action, new and strange official agencies, new national contacts

with citizens and local governments; they were also years of unemployment, privation, and misery; and, even more, they were the first years of Democratic control of the federal government since 1920. The pressure for jobs from partisans and jobless was tremendous.

It is, therefore, not remarkable that Congress exempted most of the New Deal agencies from the requirements of the Civil Service Act. The justification is political, not administrative. The United States Civil Service Commission was in truth a Cinderella; deprived of adequate appropriations, it was swamped with hundreds of thousands of applicants for examinations for whom few jobs were available, while Mr. Emil Hurja developed an efficient employment agency under the auspices of the Democratic National Committee. Some 300,000 politically sponsored workers thus made their way into the federal agencies concerned with the new programs. Furthermore Congress required senatorial confirmation of all W. P. A. appointees to positions paying \$5,000 or more, and exerted much pressure to extend this rule elsewhere.

In 1935 the situation had become so disturbing that the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada addressed the President in a resolution declaring:<sup>2</sup>

It is a matter of serious regret on the part of all those people who hope for continued improvement in public personnel administration that so many positions have been exempted from provisions of the Civil Service Laws either by legislative enactment or by executive order . . . the explanation that an emergency exists is no longer a valid reason for excepting these positions from the classified service; and . . . the continued exclusion of such positions is a concession to the exponents of the spoils system and a neglect of governmental efficiency.

The President replied at once, pointing to a number of extensions of the merit system and renewing his assurance that the merit system would be further extended.

THE TURN OF THE civil service tide was clearly foreshadowed by the civil service provisions of the Social Security Act in 1935, but the undercurrent of presidential interest in the improvement of the federal service was evident from the beginning of his administration. In 1933, as an outgrowth of President Hoover's Research Committee on Social Trends, there

<sup>2</sup> Civil Service Assembly, *News Letter*, I, No. 7 (December, 1935), p. 2.



was established the Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel. Franklin Roosevelt endorsed the inquiry as a subject of "major significance in the life and welfare of the American people."<sup>3</sup> In 1934 the President invited me to become a member of the United States Civil Service Commission. In a memorable half-hour conversation he dwelt upon the integrity of the British civil service, but also upon its class structure and its relative rigidity. He wanted, he said, an American civil service as competent and as trustworthy as the British, but one with more imagination, more flexibility, and more responsiveness to public opinion. Probably no American president has ever been as familiar with the virtues and vices of other great public services by reason of personal contact and experience as Roosevelt.

The turn of the tide could also be seen in an unexpected quarter. The New Deal agencies, largely staffed through the agency of Mr. Hurja, began to give evidence of an awareness of the fundamental tasks of personnel management which was often conspicuously absent from the old-line agencies. It is significant that at a time when the U. S. Civil Service Commission had never held an examination for personnel officer, and when the Commission, like most other agencies had no personnel office other than that of chief clerk (Dr. W. W. Stockberger in the Department of Agriculture excepted), the Farm Credit Administration, the Home Owners' Loan Corporation, the Agricultural Adjustment Administration, and other New Deal agencies were setting up personnel offices staffed with an alert group of industrial personnel men who saw much more in their task than merely keeping employment records. These men brought a fresh and invaluable contribution to the federal service; their concept of personnel work has become standard in the federal service, although not always fully realized in practice.

IN THESE SAME YEARS of merit system relapse there was also another sign of a new era ahead, the organization of the Tennessee Valley Authority and the invention of new patterns of personnel work therein. The organic T. V. A. act excluded the Authority from the jurisdic-

tion of the U. S. Civil Service Commission but directed that in making appointments and promotions "no political test or qualification shall be permitted or given consideration, but all such appointments and promotions shall be given and made on the basis of merit and efficiency." Public skepticism of the value of this declaration was shared by at least one important member of the Senate. A powerful attempt was made without delay to assimilate the T. V. A. patronage to that belonging by political custom to the senators of the states touched by the T. V. A., notably Tennessee. The courage and determination of the personnel director of T. V. A. and of the Board of Directors formed the first, essential line of defense. Back of this barricade stood the President, steadfastly supporting the T. V. A. in its downright refusal to violate the law by compromising with patronage seekers. The struggle was a long and bitter one, renewed again and again; but even when patronage was the order of the day in Washington, it was rigorously denied in Knoxville. As events were to show, the President's stand on the T. V. A. was symbolic of the contribution he was to make later to the whole civil service system.

### III

THE President's Committee on Administrative Management was created on March 20, 1936. Messrs. Louis Brownlow, Charles E. Merriam and Luther Gulick took up again, in broader scale, the task of improving the federal service to which they and their associates had already contributed much in the publications of the Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel. Their report, buttressed by the monograph written by Floyd W. Reeves and Paul T. David, was startling in some respects, but it secured the instant and unqualified approval of the President. The Civil Service Commission was to disappear in favor of a single civil service administrator; the personnel responsibilities of the departments were to be expanded and modernized; a new Council of Personnel Administration was to serve as a common ground for the exchange of ideas and experience; salaries of top career men were to be fixed at from \$12,000 to \$15,000; and the merit system was to be extended upward, outward, and downward to include all but a very

<sup>3</sup> *Better Government Personnel* (1935), p. vi.

small number of policy determining positions.

This report was issued in January, 1937. It became the center of a storm almost equal to that stirred up by the bill enlarging the Supreme Court. It is hard now to believe that a famous columnist, reporting the reorganization measures of 1937, could have wrung from her pen the following impassioned words:

The independence of the states is to become the independence of local soviets, or of prefectures. We are to turn the country into a sort of colonial empire under a high commissioner, and local governments will function by the will and grace of the central executive . . . We shall be ruled in the first instance by an invisible government of an anonymous secretariat.

The initial success of the campaign of misrepresentation and demagoguery was a genuine source of concern to democrats, already worried about the anti-democratic movement sweeping over the world. But by 1940 most of what the President recommended had been achieved, in considerable measure with the express consent and approval of Congress. The idea of a single civil service administrator was rejected, although, in 1931, it had also been recommended by President Hoover. Mr. Roosevelt, in a neat tactical move, gained some of the advantages of a single administrator by asking one of his administrative assistants, Mr. William H. McReynolds, to become Liaison Officer for Personnel Management. Congress acquiesced. In 1938 the departments reconstituted their personnel offices, many new personnel directors were brought in, and the scope of departmental personnel work was greatly expanded. Congress hesitated, but was eventually satisfied.

In 1938 the Council of Personnel Administration was reconstituted by executive order, and quickly became an active center for the common consideration of the wide range of activities which now became common property, not merely the interest of the more progressive agencies. The civil service rules were systematically revised and modernized, and the first, second, and third class postmasters were brought under the jurisdiction of the Civil Service Commission.

**A**MENDMENTS TO THE Social Security Act in 1939, recommended by President Roosevelt, extended the protection of the merit system to state public assistance and employment security services jointly supported by federal

funds. In the same year the first Hatch Act gave statutory foundation for the long-standing prohibitions against pernicious political activity, and in 1940 the second Hatch Act extended these restrictions to state personnel jointly supported by federal payments.

In 1940 Congress enacted the Ramspeck Act authorizing the President to extend the classified civil service to nearly all federal officials excepting lawyers, the personnel of the T. V. A., and policy-determining officials. The President took early advantage of this authorization in 1941 and by executive order extended the coverage of the Civil Service Act to the point where about 95 per cent of the permanent service was included. These were truly the years when was realized the President's call to action: "It is time to do more than stand by."

In the course of discussion with a small group who were urging these extensions, Mr. Roosevelt was told that approval of the pending executive order would involve the most far-reaching extension of the civil service made by any president, including Theodore Roosevelt. At the mention of this name, the President broke into a broad grin and his eyes twinkled, as he said with evident relish, "Even more than that, eh?"

The problem of extending the merit system to the attorney positions came up in 1938. The President had approved an executive order covering in these positions so far as he was legally able to do so, but was persuaded by the arguments of some important federal attorneys to delay action pending an investigation. To make the study, the President appointed the Committee on Civil Service Improvement, Mr. Justice Stanley Reed of the Supreme Court being the chairman.

After two years of inquiry and consideration the Committee entered a divided report. All concurred in condemning the existing system of discretionary appointment and in supporting a career service for federal attorneys. The difference of opinion arose only over the best way of reaching this end—whether by a separate system or through the Civil Service Commission. The President accepted the former solution and set up by executive order the Board of Legal Examiners. This board made an intelligent and effective beginning toward better selection methods, but congressional hostility

(not wholly indigenous) suspended its efforts.

THE GAINS of these few years, in short, were remarkable. An advanced program of personnel management was introduced into all departments and agencies. Dynamic leadership was forthcoming from the Civil Service Commission and the Council of Personnel Administration. The merit system was made almost universal, even including for a brief moment most of the federal attorneys. Coordination and support were at hand in the Liaison Officer for Personnel Management. Congress was in a friendly mood, enacting legislation of basic importance in 1939 and 1940. An eager spirit of innovation, a willingness to test new ideas on a large scale, a discontent with past achievement, and a growing sense of corporate responsibility for steady improvement—all these were in the air. The stimulation and open support of Franklin Roosevelt were the foundation stones on which this edifice rested, although many hands in Congress and in the executive branch worked on the rising structure.

#### IV

THE YEARS FROM 1940 to 1945 were devoted chiefly to emergency simplification of the civil service system to meet the tremendous demands of defense and war. Although the President was overwhelmed with the consideration of major issues of foreign policy, internal organization for the production of war supplies, and the broad strategy of war itself, he found time to consider and authorize the principal aspects of civil service conversion. He approved the basic War Service Regulations effective March 16, 1942. He integrated the work of the Civil Service Commission with that of the War Manpower Commission. He endorsed the decision of the Civil Service Commission itself to turn over the initial conduct of defense and war civil service matters to the minority member of the Commission, again confirming his preference for a single head of the central personnel office.

By 1944 the problems of peacetime reconversion were peering over the horizon of the near future, especially the nature of the benefits to be granted returning veterans. Here the leadership was taken by Congress but there was

no doubt of the President's intent to deal generously with veterans, including important preferences for employment in the federal government. The ultimate dilemma presented by veterans' preference the President never resolved; the issue was less an administrative than a political one. That he had the courage to find a solution in due course of time is sufficiently attested by his ringing denunciation of the veterans' bonus bill in his message of May 22, 1935.<sup>4</sup>

Had the President lived to cooperate in the rebuilding of civil service structure after the war, it is possible that he would have directed the work of the Commission into a new frame of reference. The clue is found in a letter of January 1, 1944, from the Commission to the heads of departments asking them to cooperate in a program of better utilization of personnel. The letter noted that "the President, who is familiar with this program, has requested the Civil Service Commission to advise him from time to time as to the progress being made . . . in each department and agency."<sup>5</sup> In the enforcement of veterans' preference, the President followed this precedent, requesting the Commission to advise him of any reluctance to grant benefits in government employment. The Commission was obliged to report one such case, whereupon the President became his own enforcing officer—with crushing success. The pattern of staff observation and report, and of executive action is an interesting one.

In short, the major contribution of the Roosevelt administration to the public service of the crisis period was to continue a single responsible agency to provide leadership, to direct and to coordinate the unparalleled task of recruiting millions of civilian government employees. The second major contribution was to streamline normal procedures to conform to crisis conditions.

The influence of Franklin Roosevelt on the federal civil service after 1933 was thus profound. Emerging from three or four years of superficial neglect, the system was thoroughly overhauled and modernized from 1937 to 1940, and then drastically readjusted to the war crisis.

<sup>4</sup> *The Public Papers and Addresses of Franklin D. Roosevelt*. IV (1938), p. 182.

<sup>5</sup> U. S. Civil Service Commission, Press Release, January 31, 1944.



The organization of the personnel system was greatly strengthened; comprehension of the nature of the personnel job was refreshed and enlarged; the level of performance throughout the public offices responded. The federal service began to attract large numbers of young men and women of talent and energy who saw in government work a challenging career.

## V

A FURTHER VIEW of Franklin Roosevelt's contribution to the public service comes from analysis of his ideas on a group of contemporary problems. Three deserve notice: his views on a career service, on the extension of the merit system to state services jointly supported by the federal government, and on the role of unions of government employees.

As a young man Roosevelt had traveled and studied abroad. He retained a fluent command of spoken French throughout this life. In his early years he bicycled through Germany and had an unpleasant encounter with the German army, then on maneuvers. He came to know Great Britain intimately and during World War I saw a good deal of British and French naval officers. He was thus thrown into working contact with navy and diplomatic career men, and the civil service of these countries also fell under his inspection. He was impressed with the integrity of the British service and its capacity to maintain a high level of public business. He also was acutely conscious of its historic class structure and what he called its inflexibility.

In this country he knew intimately the navy career system and the diplomatic service; the career lines that had developed over long years in forestry, public health, and engineering, for example, he knew less well. One of his long-range objectives was to develop a career service in all phases of government work, and in his first conversation with me he invited me in general terms to give attention to this problem. The first foundation—permanent, non-partisan employment—he succeeded in fully achieving, in principle; the junior civil service examiner examination, later transformed into the option in administration of the junior professional assistant examination, was another promising lead; the remarkable development of in-service training facilities during

the years from 1933 to 1940 and with even greater volume since, established still another base; the report of the Committee on Civil Service Improvement set out a plan for a career in the specifically administrative positions.

The President watched these and other pieces of a complete career service take shape with satisfaction, but he never formulated a systematic program of his own. In general he wanted a system that would be democratic, with no barriers to the recognition of men and women of capacity. He also wanted a system that would automatically eliminate its own deadwood.

In a conversation on this subject, the President called to my attention the Navy "plucking system" and suggested that it might be adapted to the civil service. A naval officer who is three times passed over for promotion is retired from active service. The President was conscious of the fact that in many parts of the federal government there is no promotion system, and that in consequence some rise to relatively high position propelled by no other force than the passage of time. The matter was not pressed further, but in *Government Career Service* I proposed an adaptation of the Navy system in connection with the initial training program for a career in general administration.

THE EXTENT to which the authority of the Social Security Board carried into the co-operating state services was left in some ambiguity in the organic act of 1935. The Board was, however, soon forced to discipline certain states which were unwilling to maintain minimum standards: Illinois, Oklahoma, and Ohio in turn. The Ohio delegation in Congress made a bold move to return to this state in the form of a "relief bill" the money which had been withheld by the Social Security Board. Both the House of Representatives and the Senate approved the measure. The fate of the whole grant-in-aid plan and proper personnel standards in the states literally hung in the balance. In a forthright veto message on January 24, 1940, the President said:<sup>6</sup>

I am withholding my approval . . . because of my belief that an expeditious, effective and nonpolitical

<sup>6</sup> *The Public Papers and Addresses of Franklin D. Roosevelt*, IX (1941), p. 62.



administration of the provisions of the Social Security Act is indispensable. . . .

If this bill were to become law it would at least make it possible for a State agency to violate Civil Service laws, to give blanket increases to some and deny aid to other needy applicants, to discriminate in the handling of complaints and to maintain a faulty accounting system, all with the belief that if the Social Security Board were to withhold Federal funds because of this, the state agency could later go to the Congress of the United States and receive a special appropriation in proportion to the amounts the State had put out.

. . . . It would mean that States no longer would be compelled to maintain the standards set up by the Congress, but could violate these standards with impunity and still get their money.

In 1939 the President recommended and Congress approved amendments to the Social Security Act which specifically authorized the Board to require "the establishment and maintenance of personnel standards on a merit basis." In the message supporting this delicate matter was one of his deftest paragraphs.<sup>7</sup>

Much of the success of the Social Security Act is due to the fact that all of the programs contained in this act (with one necessary exception) are administered by the states themselves, but coordinated and partially financed by the Federal government. This method has given us flexible administration, and has enabled us to put these programs into operation quickly. However, in some states incompetent and politically dominated personnel has been distinctly harmful. Therefore, I recommend that the states be required, as a condition for the receipt of Federal funds, to establish and maintain a merit system for the selection of personnel. Such a requirement would represent a protection to the states and citizens thereof rather than an encroachment by the Federal Government, since it would automatically promote efficiency and eliminate the necessity for minute Federal scrutiny of state operations.

The importance of this amendment to the steady improvement of personnel standards in the state and county government cannot be exaggerated. This provision may well be recognized, over the perspective of the years, as one of the two or three principal contributions of Franklin Roosevelt to a better public service.

**T**HE VIEWS of the President on civil service unions and their role in government were expressed on different occasions, two of which are taken as representative. In an address to state civil service employees in 1931, while governor of New York, he reminded his audience that he helped to organize the National Federa-

tion of Federal Employees, was one of its original members, and was still a member "and proud of it." "I say to you frankly and freely, that I hope you will continue to organize always holding fast to your ideals and insisting upon intelligent leadership."<sup>8</sup> In the same speech he endorsed the concept of government as a model employer.

In 1937 he stated his views on civil service unions more formally in a letter to Luther C. Steward, president of the National Federation of Federal Employees. He wrote:<sup>9</sup>

. . . . Organizations of Government employees have a logical place in Government affairs.

The desire of Government employees for fair and adequate pay, reasonable hours of work, safe and suitable working conditions, development of opportunities for advancement, facilities for fair and impartial consideration and review of grievances and other objectives of a proper employee relations policy, is basically no different from that of employees in private industry. Organization on their part to present their views on such matters is both natural and logical, but meticulous attention should be paid to the special relationships and obligations of public servants to the public itself and to the Government.

All Government employees should realize that the process of collective bargaining, as usually understood, cannot be transplanted into the public service. It has its distinct and insurmountable limitations when applied to public personnel management. The very nature and purposes of Government make it impossible for administrative officials to represent fully or to bind the employer in mutual discussions with Government employee organizations. The employer is the whole people, who speak by means of laws enacted by their representatives in Congress. Accordingly, administrative officials and employees alike are governed and guided, and in many instances restricted, by laws which establish policies, procedures, or rules in personnel matters.

Particularly, I want to emphasize my conviction that militant tactics have no place in the functions of any organization of Government employees. Upon employees in the Federal service rests the obligation to serve the whole people, whose interests and welfare require orderliness and continuity in the conduct of Government activities. This obligation is paramount. Since their own services have to do with the functioning of the Government, a strike of public employees manifests nothing less than an intent on their part to prevent or obstruct the operations of Government until their demands are satisfied. Such action, looking toward the paralysis of Government by those who have sworn to support it, is unthinkable and intolerable. It is therefore, with a feeling of gratification, that I have noted in the constitution of the National Federation of Federal Employees the provision that "under no circumstances shall this Federation engage in or support strikes against the United States Government."

<sup>7</sup> Ms. of speech in the office of the Civil Service Assembly, Chicago.

<sup>9</sup> *The Public Papers and Addresses of Franklin D. Roosevelt*, VI (1941), pp. 324-326.

<sup>7</sup> *The Public Papers and Addresses of Franklin D. Roosevelt*, VIII (1941), p. 79.

## VI

MEMBERS OF THE United States Civil Service Commission, dealing with Franklin Roosevelt in the White House on matters which required his attention, were deeply impressed with his extraordinary grasp of principle and detail. Nothing in the civil service field seemed unfamiliar to him and his capacity to catch the essential point of a complicated situation and relate it to general policy was impressive. Officials from widely divergent agencies have commented on the same familiarity with their subject matter and problems. This dazzling competence came from long experience and contact with personalities and problems, from his four years of service as governor of New York where similar problems were encountered, and from an amazing sensitivity and memory.

Concern for an intelligent and responsible public service was logically inherent in Franklin Roosevelt's whole concept of the role of government in society. He rejected the theory of the automatically beneficial consequences of the completely free play of economic and social forces. He believed that intelligence could be usefully applied toward creating a better society by conscious will and purpose. He was ready to ask government to intervene where nonintervention meant obvious social distress and human loss. He was willing to have government undertake more for the common good than any of his predecessors.

But if government is to become in some measure an instrumentality of planning and control, rather than merely a policeman and an umpire, it must command the best quality of professional and technical competence. Hence it follows that the public service must be of such a nature, so organized and inspired, that

government may take full advantage of the best talent of the nation. Mediocrity in a public service that undertakes the tasks which Franklin Roosevelt believed it must assume is fatal. Policy always ranked first in his mind, but his policy demanded a public service different from and better than that which he found in 1933.

Franklin D. Roosevelt will doubtless be remembered in history as a supreme politician and as the great democratic leader in peace and war who mobilized the enormous potential of the United States in a national attack on depression and a global assault against tyranny. He lacked some qualities which make for great achievements in administration—or he sacrificed some administrative goals to what he considered greater policy objectives. No man in public life can fail to make this type of compromise. Roosevelt played for high political stakes, often against desperate opposition. He achieved his political program in larger measure than falls to most public men.

He also accomplished large administrative reforms. The reorganization of the Executive Office of the President, permitting the easy expansion of defense and war civilian agencies in relation to the chief executive and established organs of administration, was in itself an invaluable asset in the crisis years. The new status of the Bureau of the Budget in the Executive Office of the President and the new conception of budget making were equally great achievements. In the wide field of administrative improvement, the civil service system also marched forward. From Franklin Roosevelt it drew inspiration and support, help for new legislation, long-range plans, sympathetic understanding on current problems, friendly criticism, and a dynamic drive for basic improvement.

# The Returning Veteran

DONALD J. SUBLETTE

THE HANDLING of employees who return from military service is one of the few personnel problems on which a national, over-all policy has been established. While the technicality of states' rights required that Congress exempt states and their political subdivisions, as employers, from the federal statutes and regulations on the subject, this exemption is actually only an academic one.<sup>1</sup> Administrative common sense and the force of public sentiment will compel state and municipal public agencies to fulfill the spirit and letter of these regulations, which are mandatory in so far as private industry and the federal civil service are concerned.

The basic policy for the reinstatement of returning veterans is contained in the National Selective Service and Training Act. Certain other federal laws expand the original scope of this act, and are thus essentially adjuncts to it. Also, the national headquarters of the Selective Service System has issued interpretative statements for the purpose of clarifying questions of procedure under the act. The provisions of these laws and regulations are thus of vital interest to those who are responsible for shaping the military leave reinstatement policies of state and local governments, for they collectively establish the pattern of minimum requirements against which the policies of these jurisdictions will be judged in the eyes of veterans and the general public. Because of their importance and because the suggestions advanced in this article are based

upon them, the pertinent excerpts from these laws and regulations are included as a supplement which appears at the end of this article.

THE PREVAILING POLICIES of most state and municipal civil service commissions already provide benefits for employees returning from military leave that are at least equal to those required of private employers and the federal government by the Act of Congress and the regulations of the National Selective Service System. In some instances, however, they diverge from these requirements, on points such as the following:

1. Many agencies are not satisfied merely to restore an employee to a position of like grade, pay, and seniority, on his return from military leave. They have taken additional steps to provide promotional opportunities that the employee would have enjoyed except for his period of military service. This has been done by opening promotional examinations to persons returning from military leave and requiring the promotion of the veteran where persons with lower ratings have theretofore been promoted. In those agencies where seniority is the principal or most important factor in promotion, provisions for similar comparisons and adjustments have been made.

2. The policies of most civil service commissions provide for a longer reinstatement period than the 40-day time limit provided in the original Selective Service Act. This 40-day period was changed by Congress in 1944 to 90 days, corresponding to the customary civil service procedure, but in addition, a further proviso was inserted: "or from hospitalization continuing after discharge for a period of not more than one year." Men are being discharged from the armed forces to the Veterans' Administration for further hospitalization, and the military discharge date of these veterans does

<sup>1</sup> Congress took pains to dispel any doubt that might arise regarding its attitude by including the following language in Section 8 of the National Selective Service and Training Act: "(c) If such position was in the employ of any State or political subdivision thereof, it is hereby declared to be the sense of the Congress that such person should be restored to such position or to a position of like seniority, status, and pay."

DONALD J. SUBLETTE is Secretary and Chief Examiner, Detroit Civil Service Commission.



not indicate their availability for reemployment. Since many civil service provisions are statutory or charter in nature and it is difficult to make amendments or changes, steps must be immediately taken within the framework of the current laws to safeguard the rights of veterans confined to hospitals because of service-connected disabilities, for these veterans are unable to report, and in some instances are even unable to make applications for reinstatements within the statutory period. Where the necessary laws cannot be amended, it is suggested that agencies provide for leaves of absence for this period of hospitalization, thus protecting the employee's status and reinstatement rights.

3. Local Board Memorandum No. 190-A, as cited at the end of this article, provides that "a returning veteran is entitled to reinstatement in his former position or one of like seniority, status and pay even though such reinstatement necessitates the discharge of a non-veteran of greater seniority. . . ." It is possible that this statement will not be followed by most jurisdictions. The statement is not found in the Selective Service Act and apparently there is no clear legal justification for it. While not binding on the courts, and in no sense binding on public personnel agencies, in the matter of the arbitration between the United Steel Workers of America, C. I. O., Golden Lodge No. 1123, Canton, Ohio, and Timken Roller Bearing Company, Canton, Ohio, the arbitrator found that "no employee can be displaced to make room for a returned veteran if, after crediting the veteran with the seniority so accumulated (in accordance with the Act), such employee still has the greater seniority." In the absence of labor agreements to the contrary, or in the case of a public jurisdiction, in the absence of statutes to the contrary, this probably will be the prevailing opinion. A literal following of the Selective Service headquarters' memorandum will create considerable personnel conflict, including conflict between different veterans' groups; for example, between those of World War I and World War II. World War I veterans are not covered by the statutes or by the memorandum above quoted.

4. Both the acts and the memorandum require reinstatement only "when the veteran is

qualified therefor." Many employers, both public and private, have indicated a willingness to go beyond the literal interpretation of the law and there are many plans and programs looking to the proper placement, rehabilitation, and training of persons handicapped by reason of service in the armed forces.<sup>2</sup>

5. There are no provisions in the Social Security, Selective Service, or other acts for crediting time spent in the armed forces towards old age and survivorship benefits. This contrasts with the usual governmental procedure of crediting such time in public retirement plans.

#### FACILITIES UNDER THE "G. I." BILL

IT SHOULD BE NOTED that the foregoing provisions and regulations are not part of the Service Man's Readjustment Act of 1944 (the so-called "G. I. Bill of Rights"), which for the most part does not concern public personnel agencies. There are, however, some provisions in this Act with which civil service agencies should be familiar so that they may give adequate counseling or guidance service to their veterans. Among these provisions are the following:

1. Educational benefits based on length of military service, marital status, and scholastic aptitude are provided under the Act. Personnel agencies will want to give counseling as to types of training most useful in a particular service, promotional opportunities, etc., and in addition should modify their rules so that leaves of absence can be given for this purpose.

2. Hospitalization and medical care in general are provided without charge by the Veterans' Administration through its Veterans' Facilities to veterans of both World War I and World War II. Occasionally, situations will be found where free medical treatment will restore a former employee to employability and such services should be utilized.

3. Unemployment allowances may be important in those agencies which undergo particularly severe postwar readjustment prob-

<sup>2</sup> The United States Employment Service provides a selective placement service for the handicapped, including an advisory service for job analysis, placement, and training. Any local United States Employment Service office may be consulted for details.



lems. Unemployment allowances for veterans will in many instances ease the situation.

The payment of disability compensation and pensions, together with vocational rehabilitation training of disabled veterans, are provided for under other acts of Congress. Personnel agencies should be generally familiar with these provisions so that proper counseling may be given. In most areas, the United States Employment Service maintains a veterans' representative who is familiar with these provisions and who will give assistance to personnel agencies. Local veterans' service committees have been established under the direction and supervision of the Selective Service System to cooperate with other agencies, including the Employment Service and the Veterans' Administration.

#### DEVELOPING A PROGRAM

**I**N THE LIGHT of national policy and after determining local conditions and sentiments, personnel agencies seeking to handle the problem of returning veterans satisfactorily should probably undertake the following steps:

1. Appoint or assign a single person on the agency's own staff to be responsible for veterans' affairs. This person should be a staff examiner and should be a veteran, preferably of World War II. Many agencies will find it necessary at the current time to assign or appoint a veteran of World War I temporarily pending the availability of a suitably qualified person from World War II. In addition to being familiar with the provisions of the various laws regarding veterans, veterans' organizations, and veteran service activities, such a person should have considerable familiarity with the resources of a given jurisdiction, its occupational setup, and placement and training approaches.

2. The second step should probably be the appointment of a veterans' committee to serve in an advisory capacity to the personnel agency. It is suggested that a three-member committee consisting of civil service employees be nominated by the local organizations of the three major veterans' groups and appointed by the civil service commission. At the current time these appointees will be undoubtedly World War I veterans. Within the next year or so they should be replaced by World War II veterans.

3. If the agency has not already done so, rules and regulations should be immediately drafted and adopted for carrying out the veterans' program. The laws and regulations quoted as a supplement to this article should serve as a groundwork for the program, particularly when coupled with the statutory and other provisions in a given jurisdiction. Where statutory or charter provisions interfere with a desirable program, immediate steps should be taken for their change. The veterans' counselor or director of veterans' activities, in conjunction with the veterans' advisory committee, should be given responsibility for drafting such regulations and legislation, subject, of course, to the final approval of the governing body of the personnel agency.

4. If an agency has not already done so, immediate steps should be taken to develop a record, preferably in card form, of all classified employees who are currently on military leave. Should no formal regulations as to granting military leave be in effect, these regulations should be drafted and beginning immediately all new persons entering the military service should be required to submit documentary proof and have such leave formally granted. The records can be added to the others as such leaves are granted. Where roster cards are available, new cards need not necessarily be prepared, since the roster cards for persons on military leave can be segregated and filed separately with suitable notations.

5. All returning veterans should be interviewed by the veterans' counselor. In a state agency or other agency having a wide geographical coverage, it may be necessary to appoint deputies on either a full-time or a part-time basis to aid the counselor in covering the whole jurisdiction. In any event, there should be a central record of persons returning from military leave.

#### ROLE OF THE VETERANS' COUNSELOR

**W**HEN PROPERLY CONSTITUTED, the duties of a veterans' counselor are of exceptional influence on the success of the personnel agency's program for veterans. Among the functions which the counselor may perform are the following:

1. The inspection of discharges and other certificates of service to determine whether or

not a person is entitled to the benefits provided by law and regulation. The War Department has published a pamphlet guide to the various types of Army, Navy, and Merchant Marine discharge papers,<sup>3</sup> which provides an excellent guide to the situation. However, there are many complicating problems which must be carefully watched, otherwise veteran treatment may be improperly given in some cases or improperly denied in others. One important point is that of determining whether a person presenting an honorable discharge has actually had *active* military service. Many discharges have been seen which on their face purport to be honorable, but a careful reading will indicate that no active service was performed. There are very few laws or regulations which require or even permit preferential treatment to persons without actual active military service. Of course, dishonorable discharges and discharges under other than honorable conditions in most situations do not entitle individuals to treatment as a veteran.

2. Coupled with the interview by the veterans' counselor should be a complete and thorough medical examination. Some agencies are under the mistaken impression that it is an additional benefit for the veteran to have medical examinations waived. If this mistaken policy is followed, there will be frequent instances of persons who by reason of unknown physical disability prove hazardous both to themselves and others, creating a very undesirable situation if not legal or financial complications. Veterans, like all other persons, should not be assigned to jobs where their physical condition presents a hazard either to themselves or others. There can be no objection to waiving physical requirements which are not, as a matter of fact, actually disabling. A proper physical examination is as essential to proper placement as any other information and record which the counselor may obtain.

3. In the interview with the counselor, a rather detailed statement of military service should be obtained. This should include types of experience, training and what is frequently more important, changes in occupational outlook and ambition. In this connection it should

be noted that for many individuals a mere return to the last job held prior to entry into the armed services will not be doing even elementary justice. Many instances will be found of relatively young men who held minor clerical positions, for example, upon induction in the Army. In some cases, five or more years have gone by since their original entry into the armed forces. Some of these employees are now holding ranks of captain or even higher. It is obviously ridiculous to offer such a person a messenger boy's job on his return. Simple justice will require an adjustment at as high an occupational level as the employee's abilities and qualifications permit.

4. After counseling and interviewing, and after determination of proper placement, the veterans' counselor and the personnel agency must follow through in attempting to get the necessary promotions or transfers effected. Public personnel agencies have rarely had the authority to effect directly transfers and promotions. This has been a weakness in the personnel activities of public personnel agencies and it is imperative that at least with regard to veterans, greater authority be secured either by the acquiescence of the several operating departments or by actual legislation. Public sentiment will compel the small minority of reluctant administrative officials to comply with any sound program established by a personnel agency. To make a flexible program of transfers and promotions effective, of course, it will be necessary to have positions available. Many agencies have already provided for this by restricting the duration of appointments since Pearl Harbor to the duration of the war and not to exceed six months thereafter. In any event, by regulation or otherwise, it should be immediately declared in all personnel agencies that all appointments, promotions, transfers, and other status changes are temporary for the duration of the war and that permanent status will be granted at the end of the war only when adequate provisions have been made for the returning veterans.

5. In many instances either because of physical handicap incurred in line of duty in the military service, or because of mere passage of time, vocational training will be necessary, either to equip the individual to perform useful work within his limitations, or to permit

<sup>3</sup> *Certification of Completion of Military, Naval or Merchant Marine Service*. Civilian Personnel Pamphlet No. 13, October, 1944. War Department, Washington 25, D. C.

upgrading which the situation seems to merit. Public educational agencies are cooperating. Subsidies in many instances are provided by the federal government. What is not generally known is that the federal government through the Veterans' Administration is prepared to subsidize vocational training to disabled veterans where a bona fide apprenticeship and upgrading program is in operation. Federal and state agencies will assist the personnel agency in setting up a training and upgrading program.

6. The veterans' counselor should serve as a focal point for complaints and grievances. Unfortunately, no program involving personnel can ever be operated entirely free from complaints. The veterans' counselor, particularly by being a focal point of contact, can minimize such grievances and, by being familiar with the problems and agencies involved, prevent the occurrence of unfavorable popular reaction.<sup>4</sup>

THE BULK of this article has been devoted to the reinstatement of veterans who are returning from military leave. The hiring of new employees who are also veterans is an entirely separate problem. Experience, however, will also indicate that the veterans' counselor can be very satisfactorily used also in contacts with this group, particularly when questions of veterans' preference and placement, or problems arising in the service, are presented. A committee of the Civil Service Assembly has already submitted a report which includes suggested recommendations for veterans' preference.<sup>5</sup> It is not within the scope of this article to discuss this problem in any detail. It should be pointed out, however, that it is highly proba-

ble that as the situation develops a simple differentiation between ordinary veterans and disabled veterans will not adequately take care of the problem. Some jurisdictions give the same consideration to a person with three days' service in the armed forces as to a person who has had five years overseas, wounds and injuries which have not resulted in disability, medals, and other types of military service. It soon will be obvious both to the veterans and the general public that there must be some differential treatment based on length and type of service. Rather than setting up flat categorical requirements of veterans' preference, it would seem desirable that the amount of preference credit be based on disability, and length and type of service. With such authority a civil service commission can establish scales based on the merits of the situation.

In closing this article it should be pointed out that, contrary to widespread popular belief, the veterans' problem is not a distinct problem in itself. Veterans are normal individuals. In fact, taken as a whole they are probably more normal than the balance of the civilian population. They represent a select group in terms of physical condition, mental health, and ability. Most veterans will return to their former employment with greater physical and mental vigor and better personality adjustment. The "problem veteran" will undoubtedly represent a very small minority; in fact, it may well work out that the adjustment and rehabilitation of civilians will be a much more serious problem for public personnel agencies and for industry. Simple justice, intelligently and sympathetically effected, in seeing that veterans lose as little vocational opportunity as is humanly possible by reason of their service will meet the situation adequately.

As a final word, it is worth emphasizing that good personnel practices for veterans are also generally good techniques for solving the problems of ordinary employees. Many agencies will find that procedures instituted for veterans will serve as a starting point for revitalizing the whole personnel process.

<sup>4</sup>Needless to say, records in some detail should be kept of all veterans' activities, not only to enable the administrative officers to plan and supervise the program adequately, but also as a publicity means to demonstrate to the public that the personnel agency is doing its share or more in meeting the problem of the returning veteran.

<sup>5</sup>*The Employment of Veterans in the Public Service in the United States*. Report of the committee on Veteran Employment Policies. Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, Chicago, August, 1944.



EXCERPTS FROM FEDERAL LEGISLATION AND SELECTIVE SERVICE MEMORANDA REFERRING TO  
REINSTATEMENT RIGHTS OF RETURNING VETERANS

THE SELECTIVE TRAINING AND SERVICE ACT  
OF 1940, AS AMENDED

(b) In the case of any such person who, in order to perform such training and service, has left or leaves a position, other than a temporary position, in the employ of any employer and who (1) receives such certificate,\* (2) is still qualified to perform the duties of such position, and (3) makes application for reemployment within ninety days after he is relieved from such training and service or from hospitalization continuing after discharge for a period of not more than one year. . . .

(C) If such position was in the employ of any State or political subdivision thereof, it is hereby declared to be the sense of the Congress that such person should be restored to such position or to a position of like seniority, status, and pay.

(c) Any person who is restored to a position in accordance with the provisions . . . shall be considered as having been on furlough or leave of absence during his period of training and service in the land or naval forces, shall be so restored without loss of seniority, shall be entitled to participate in insurance or other benefits offered by the employer pursuant to established rules and practices relating to employees on furlough or leave of absence in effect with the employer at the time such person was inducted into such forces, and shall not be discharged from such position without cause within one year after such restoration.

SERVICE EXTENSION ACT OF 1941,  
AS AMENDED

Section 7:<sup>b</sup> Any person who, subsequent to May 1, 1940, and prior to the termination of the authority conferred by section 2 of this joint resolution, shall have entered upon active military or naval service in the land or naval forces of the United States shall be entitled to all the reemployment benefits of Section 8 of the Selective Training and Service Act of 1940, as amended, to the same extent as in the case of persons inducted under said Act . . . .

REEMPLOYMENT RIGHTS FOR MERCHANT MARINERS

*Public Law 87, 78th Cong., June 23, 1943*<sup>c</sup>

. . . That when used in this Act the term "service in the merchant marine" means service as an officer or member of the crew on or in connection with a vessel documented under the laws of the United States or a vessel owned by, chartered to, or operated by or for the account or use of the Administrator, as an enrollee in the United States Maritime Service on active duty,

\* Refers to an honorable discharge. See Civilian Personnel Pamphlet No. 13, October, 1944, War Department, for full description and illustrations.

<sup>b</sup> This may be construed as referring to persons enlisting, enrolling, or volunteering in the armed forces.

<sup>c</sup> This Act further provides that such persons shall be entitled to the same reinstatement rights as those inducted in the Armed Services.

and, to such extent as the Administrator shall prescribe, any period awaiting assignment to such service and any school or institution under the jurisdiction of the Administrator. Any person entering service in the merchant marine after May 1, 1940, and before the termination of the unlimited national emergency declared by the President on May 27, 1941, who, in accordance with rules and regulations prescribed by the Administrator, War Shipping Administration, completes a period of substantially continuous service in the merchant marine, shall be entitled to a certificate to that effect from the Administrator upon completion of such period, which shall include a record of any special proficiency or merit obtained.

LOCAL BOARD MEMORANDUM NO. 190-A  
Issued May 20, 1944, National Headquarters,  
United States Selective Service System<sup>d</sup>

Part III, Section 3. *Ability to perform duties:*

(a) A veteran who duly applies for reemployment must be "qualified to perform the duties of such position," and this is a question of fact to be determined by common sense and experience. The employer cannot set up arbitrary or unreasonable standards. The real question is, "Can the veteran do his job in the manner in which he did it before he left?" So long as there is any doubt, the veteran is entitled to a chance to prove that he can do so.

(b) A veteran seeking reinstatement in his former position is not required to meet higher standards than existed in the position at the time it was vacated by him, nor is he required to meet standards which the employer may set for others with no reemployment rights. If the position has been so upgraded that it is beyond the veteran's skill, he is entitled to a job requiring comparable skill and equal in seniority status and pay to that which he vacated.

Part III, Section 4. *Position "other than temporary":*<sup>e</sup>

(a) The Act provides that a veteran otherwise qualified is entitled to reinstatement in his former position only if this was "other than a temporary position." The final determination as to the "temporary" or "permanent" character of a position rests with the courts. *Every case must be determined on the facts and circumstances in that particular case.* The following administrative policies are merely intended as guides and are not to be considered as determinative in any given or hypothetical case.

(b) Generally speaking, one who is employed to fill the place made vacant by a person entering service occupies a temporary status and has no reemployment rights even though he subsequently enters service. There may be exceptions to this, however. For example, suppose that A, a permanent employee, enters

<sup>d</sup> Opinion of General Counsel, National War Labor Board, April 27, 1945. " . . . It is highly probable that this memorandum is not such an interpretation as to be obligatory upon other agencies of Government."

<sup>e</sup> A probationary employee has been held to be temporary.



service and B, also a permanent employee, is upgraded or transferred into A's place and then enters service; if they return, they are entitled to reinstatement in their original permanent positions. It is the character of relationship between the employer and employee, whether "temporary" or "permanent," that should govern rather than the particular assignment being carried out at the time of entry into service.

(c) In the case of jobs created by war expansion, the "permanent" or "temporary" character of the job depends upon the facts and circumstances in each individual case. Some of the factors which may be considered are:

- (1) Was the position newly created.
- (2) Was the veteran the first occupant thereof.
- (3) Was it intended as a "wartime" or as a "permanent" position.
- (4) What were the circumstances or agreements at the time of the original employment.

(5) After employment commenced, was the relationship between the employer and employee such that they contemplated a permanent relationship in the ordinary sense of industrial and commercial practice.

These factors are not conclusive or all-embracing. Innumerable unknowns may present themselves in each individual case.

(d) While an employment for a fixed and definite period is ordinarily a "temporary" employment, the repeated extension of the contract of employment may indicate that such contract is intended primarily to fix the terms of employment, such as wages, vacations, seniority, bonus, insurance, and similar questions, and that the time limitation is secondary. Under such conditions, if the practice of time contracts is general in similar positions within an establishment, such employment may be considered "other than temporary."

(e) Under Regulations of the Civil Service Commission, if a war-service appointee (a temporary appointee) of the Federal Government is honorably discharged from active military or naval service prior to the termination of the war, he will be entitled to substantially the same reemployment benefits as are provided for permanent employees under the Act, but that person shall not be required to be retained in employment beyond the limitation placed upon his original appointment.

\* \* \* \* \*

Part IV, Section 1. *Position of like seniority, status, and pay:*

(a) Seniority rights accumulate during the period of active military or naval service. Time is credited in the same manner as it would have accumulated had the person remained continuously at work in his civilian occupation.

(b) Where a position has been upgraded, a returning veteran, in order to claim reinstatement in such position, must be qualified to perform the duties and

functions of that new position. If unable to qualify for the upgraded job, he is, nevertheless, entitled to a position equal in seniority, status, and pay to the one which he left.

(c) A returning veteran is entitled to reinstatement in his former position or one of like seniority, status, and pay even though such reinstatement necessitates the discharge of a non-veteran with a greater seniority.

(d) A veteran is entitled to his former position or one of like seniority, status, and pay, and may refuse another even though the pay is greater and offers other advantages.

\* \* \* \* \*

Part IV, Section 2. *Place of reemployment:*

The normal place of reemployment of a veteran is the location at which he was employed when he entered service if the employer is still established there. A change of location is a matter for mutual agreement between employer and employee. A veteran entitled to reinstatement in a former position may not require his employer to employ him in a different location from that of his former position, nor may an employer require such a veteran to accept employment in a different location if the employer is still established at the place of former employment.

Part IV, Section 3. *Immediate reemployment:*

(a) A veteran is entitled to immediate reinstatement. The term "immediate," however, is not to be understood in a literal sense of "instant," but rather as meaning "without unnecessary delay." If a physical examination of the veteran is required, either by law or police or health regulations, or if other preliminaries are necessary as a prerequisite to ordinary employment, a reasonable time should be allowed therefor. Mere convenience of the employer is not an excuse for delaying reinstatement of the veteran.

\* \* \* \* \*

Part IV, Section 4. *Employment for one year:*

(a) A veteran entitled to reemployment may not be discharged from his restored position "without cause within one year after such restoration." What is "cause" for dismissal in any case must be determined by the facts and circumstances of each case. The question is to be determined by standards of common sense and is to be measured by practices and customs generally acceptable in industry or practices and customs in common and accepted use in the particular place of employment.

(b) A veteran who has been reinstated to his former position cannot within one year be displaced by another on the ground that the latter has greater seniority rights. To permit such displacement would be to nullify the original reinstatement and thus deprive the veteran of his reemployment rights under the Act, and would be, in effect, a repeal of an Act of Congress.

---

# The Personnel Program of the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration

WILLIAM F. HOWELL

---

THE United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration is one of the first of the international organizations established to deal with some of the problems growing out of the present war. It is also one of the first international organizations that is essentially an administrative agency. For both reasons the experience of UNRRA is of real significance for future international organizations which will be concerned with the security of the post-war world. It is of particular significance that this international administrative agency, although temporary in nature, has had as one of its basic concepts the development of an international civil service. The personnel policies and practices pursued by UNRRA will be of practical interest and value to other agencies which may follow in the international field.

In general, the scope of UNRRA's responsibilities is well known. The Administration was created in the East Room of the White House on the ninth of November, 1943, by the representatives of forty-four nations, each signing an agreement to collaborate in providing relief and rehabilitation assistance for those countries which had suffered so much from the war and which were not in a position to meet the essential requirements of their own peoples. The representatives agreed to form an organization to perform these all-important tasks, and agreed further to contribute jointly to the financing of such an organization. They agreed that the new organization would become the instrumentality through which the several United Nations could work jointly in achieving their humanitarian objectives. Shortly thereafter the first session of the UNRRA Council was

held in Atlantic City. From the outset the Council was conceived of as UNRRA's legislative body; it was to determine the basic policies to be followed and review the accomplishments of the administrative staff. While the Council is not in session a central committee, composed of representatives of the United States, the United Kingdom, the U. S. S. R. and China, gives continuity to the legislative responsibilities of the Council.

## AN INTERNATIONAL CIVIL SERVICE

AT THE OUTSET the Council recognized the importance of personnel administration and the concept of an international civil service in the framework of the administrative organization. The resolutions on the subject adopted at the Atlantic City meeting have become the basic authority and guide-post for the creation of the personnel program. Resolution No. 37, the First Council Proceedings, provides:

WHEREAS, the Council desires to promote the concept of a truly international civil service; and, whereas, it recognizes that the success of the Administration will in large part depend upon the vision, competence, integrity, and loyalty of the men and women who will become its administrative officers, and comprise its technical staff; and that the vesting, by the Agreement, of full executive authority and responsibility in the Director General, requires that he act with the greatest possible freedom in the selection of personnel and the establishment of personnel standards; it is therefore resolved, that the staff of the Administration should be of an international character, selected upon the basis of individual competence, character, and integrity without discrimination on the grounds of sex, race, nationality, or creed, and recruited upon as wide a geographic basis as is possible, compatible with efficient administration; and that salary standards be established at a sufficiently high level to make it possible for the Administration to secure the employment of persons possessing the highest qualifications within their own particular field of endeavor. . . .

---

WILLIAM F. HOWELL is Deputy Director of Personnel, United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration.

Recognizing the difficulties which the Director General would face in building a staff at a time of an acute manpower shortage and of securing the release of qualified persons from the member governments, the Council recommended:

That all member governments endeavor to make available to the Administration such persons in their own civil service as the Director General may invite to join the staff of the Administration; and to take proper steps to insure that the established rights and status of such persons shall be in no way adversely affected by their temporary employment by the Administration.

It is significant to note that the Administration, through the Director General, has been given wide discretion in all matters pertaining to personnel administration. The active assistance of member nations is sought, not in terms of official nominations and individual pressure to secure appointments, but through a conscientious endeavor to make available to UNRRA those qualified individuals the Director General may invite to join the staff.

The overall resolutions of the Council have been implemented by statements of policy and procedure by the Administration, at all times keeping within the scope and intent of Council statements. Administrative orders and a working manual of personnel procedures and policies have been prepared. But perhaps of greater significance is the influence exerted by the civil service practices of the member nations, particularly the United States and the United Kingdom. The Headquarters Office in Washington and the European Regional Office in London have endeavored to follow the best practices of personnel administration in these two countries. The officials and employees coming from other member nations have brought to the Administration valuable experiences from their respective home governments. Even though the organization is international in character and has set out to establish an international civil service, the importance of traditions and precedents of the national governments in the field of personnel administration cannot be overlooked. This is an important point for future international organizations to bear in mind in planning their personnel policies, particularly with regard to the employment of civil servants from the various national governments.

#### ORGANIZATION FOR ADMINISTRATION

THE FOCAL POINT for establishing the personnel program of the Administration has been the Headquarters Office. There has been established in the Headquarters organization a Division of Personnel and Training which is part of the Bureau of Finance and Administration, the general administrative-management arm of UNRRA. The Bureau of Finance and Administration is headed by a deputy director general who has responsibility for fiscal and budgetary matters, organization analysis, and administrative services, in addition to personnel and training. Counterparts of this pattern are found in the regional offices and in the country missions. The Personnel and Training Division is organized into branches for training, employment, and classification, together with an office for employee counseling.

Many of the day-to-day personnel operations would be quite familiar to anyone in the public personnel field in local, state, or federal jurisdictions. At the divisional staff meetings there are invariably discussions concerning positive recruitment, compensation, allocation of positions, and problems of employee welfare. The pros and cons of employee efficiency ratings have been debated back and forth as they surely have in countless jurisdictions throughout the United States. At the same time, the UNRRA personnel administrator or technician who loses sight of the international character of his work misses the real significance of the personnel program of UNRRA. The international characteristics of the agency not only influence the daily operations but add certain new factors which are essentially international in character. Practices are made more complex by such factors as the varying pay scales in different member nations and the difficulties of recruiting on a world-wide basis.

The international character of the agency is perhaps most clearly evident at the operating level when the mission chief and his supervisors are faced with the necessity for joining together into an operating team the nationals coming from a variety of backgrounds and traditions. This becomes the crucial test as to whether an international personnel administration can be devised which is sufficiently imaginative and flexible to bring about the *esprit de corps* and operational drives always



necessary in any staff at any level of government to achieve the purposes of the organization. In the long run it can be safely predicted that one of the criteria of success of UNRRA will be the degree to which such integration is achieved. It is difficult to evaluate success at this time, but the ever-increasing tempo of the agency's activities and the ability of the staff to stand together under trying conditions give genuine encouragement to the belief that such an integration is being achieved and can be obtained by future international organizations.

In looking at the over-all personnel program as devised by UNRRA attention will be given to such basic factors as classification of positions and the establishment of pay scales, the recruitment and placement of an international staff, training activities, and some of the factors involved in the all-inclusive headings of employee activities and personnel management.

#### CLASSIFICATION AND PAY

SINCE UNRRA is an international organization, it is not, of course, subject to such national laws concerning classification as the Federal Act of 1923, as amended. Early in the agency's history a grade system involving fourteen levels was established and allocation of positions to appropriate grades has been carried on, particularly at the Headquarters level. Each grade carries a salary range with minimum, maximum and intermediate increments. Allocation factors familiar to personnel technicians have been utilized. The difference in standard practices between the civil services of the United States and the United Kingdom have been particularly notable in classification matters. Nonetheless, for over-all management purposes, the concept of using a scale of grades for personnel control purposes has been generally recognized throughout the organization. Neat definitions of various classes of positions is difficult to achieve in a new, fast-growing organization like UNRRA and the rapid changes in and expansions of programs make such an objective of less significance than would be true of a more typical permanent national organization. At the same time, differences in occupational terminology and qualifications standards among the various countries makes it most necessary to develop a uniform pattern of titles and specifications,

thereby facilitating budget planning, international recruitment of staff, and communications among the far-flung offices of the Administration.

Classification is particularly essential as the foundation for an equitable salary system, especially as a useful tool for coping with the problem of varying pay scales in the different areas that serve as sources of staff recruitment. Therefore, considerable time of the classification staff in Headquarters and its counterparts elsewhere has been spent on salary problems. At the outset the Council established the policy of paying salaries at a sufficiently high level to attract qualified personnel, but at the same time paralleling prevailing rates in the countries from which the staff is recruited. While at first glance this might seem to run contrary to the usual approach of "equal pay for equal work," actually it represents recognition of the varying costs and standards of living among the nations. In any particular location, for example, an UNRRA employee recruited in the United States may be paid a base salary of \$4,000; working on similar assignments may be an employee recruited in the United Kingdom at the Sterling equivalent of \$3,000 and an employee recruited in Brazil at the Cruzeiro equivalent of \$2900. All three employees will receive the same living allowance and will retain approximately the same amount for local personal expenses. The remainders of their salaries will be allotted to their homes where they will normally have about the same relative purchasing power. In other words, it may be assumed that the higher amounts sent home by Americans will be absorbed by the higher costs of rent, taxation, insurance, dependency contributions, and other fixed obligations in the United States. From this policy has evolved a program of establishing for each classification grade separate salary ranges for the countries in which operations are being conducted or from which any substantial number of employees are recruited.

In any permanent international organization, with its staff recruited on an international basis but located primarily in a single Headquarters, such as the League of Nations at Geneva, a uniform salary schedule would be more feasible. However, the temporary nature of the UNRRA organization, its basic objec-



tives of relief and rehabilitation, the present status of the world labor market, present monetary exchange complications, and the varying standards which prevail among the member nations—all these factors militate strongly against the establishment of such a uniform policy for UNRRA.

#### RECRUITMENT AND PLACEMENT

THE staff recruited and trained for UNRRA possesses a large variety of skills and backgrounds. The program has required personnel proficient in such fields as agricultural rehabilitation, industrial rehabilitation, public health, welfare, camp management, supply and distribution, and the various phases of management. The staff has been recruited on an international basis, and at the present time more than twenty-five nations are represented on the UNRRA payroll. In accordance with the Council Resolution cited above, the national governments have been cooperative in making available their recruiting and placement facilities. In the United States, Canada, and the United Kingdom, extensive use has been made of the civil service machinery. In connection with the responsibilities for personnel to carry out the joint UNRRA-military Displaced Persons Operation in Germany, the War Department of the United States Government issued on March 23, 1945, a memorandum stating the policy of releasing enlisted personnel, WACS, warrant officers, and officers to UNRRA. Military personnel not alerted or in alerted units over the age of 30 may apply to UNRRA through appropriate channels. Letters covering this policy were sent by the Department to the commanding officers of the European and Mediterranean Theaters. During the first few weeks after the issuance of this policy statement, UNRRA has received an average of 800 applications per day. The Canadian Royal Air Force has made similar arrangements and have detailed an officer to UNRRA to assist in recruitment.

The Brazilian Government sent a staff member of its *Departamento Administrativo do Serviço Público* to the Headquarters office for a month's work on recruitment of Brazilians. Headquarters missions have also recruited personnel in Australia, New Zealand, and a number of the South and Central American

countries. The European Regional Office has recruited extensively on the continent, especially for the Displaced Persons program. Country missions are also empowered to recruit locally within established budget limits.

The recruitment process as followed in the Headquarters Office involves the following steps:

1. The establishment of minimum qualifications.
2. Careful review of personal information contained in a comprehensive application blank.
3. Extensive use of interviews, given jointly, insofar as possible, by the Personnel and Training Division and the operating division concerned.
4. Extensive use of investigations, not only concerned with security factors but giving due consideration to past employment records and employer evaluations.
5. A rigid physical examination. (For field employees only).

No formal testing has been used except in the stenographic and typing fields.

EXPERIENCE with the early operational phases of UNRRA has indicated the importance of many so-called intangible personal factors. The ability of an employee to adapt himself to a new and abnormal environment and work in a program in which the guidelines are not always clear, are factors which are difficult to predict but nonetheless become an important part of the employment and placement process. Through interviews and evaluations of past records, the Personnel and Training Division has attempted to ascertain why candidates are interested in UNRRA, the presence or absence of racial, national or other prejudices, candidates' ability to work as teams, and their emotional and physical stability. While language facility is important, UNRRA has not considered it an absolute minimum requirement. The same has been true of living in another country.

The placement of personnel recruited from several different countries into a working team gives rise to many problems. Even if the same language is spoken, the terminology used and the background of experience and conditioning will vary considerably. The American and

British welfare workers, for example, have quite a different background of training and dealing with people in need. This increases the importance of making every effort to select employees who are tolerant, willing to work together, and conscious of the temperaments and backgrounds of their fellow workers.

Individuals who join the staff of UNRRA are required to take an oath to the effect that they will perform their duties with sole loyalty and regard to the interest of UNRRA and will not seek or receive from any government or other external authority instructions in the performance of official duties. (The oath used is the same as that formerly used by the League of Nations.)

There has been no real problem of securing applications in sufficient volume; there are currently nearly 50,000 in the headquarters office files. But the quest for qualified applicants has required positive recruitment techniques. Extensive use has been made of professional and technical groups as a source of supply. Recruiting trips have been made throughout the United States and Canada. For several months nine regional recruiting representatives of the United States Civil Service Commission were on the UNRRA payroll, interviewing and seeking qualified applicants. Citizen recruiting panels have performed similar functions, especially on the West Coast in this country. A comparable program has been carried on in Canada. In the United Kingdom extensive use has been made of interviewing boards to evaluate personnel referred through the Treasury by the Ministry of Labour. While no rated registers have been established, qualified applications have been coded on punched cards and become an immediate source of reference to appointing officials.

In the recruitment and placement process the Personnel and Training Division regards itself as a staff agency and considers the responsibility of the operational division an integral part of employment. Operating divisions have interviewed and recommended scores of employees. The standards to be maintained are worked out jointly with operating officials, and their enforcement is the responsibility of the Personnel and Training Division.

As the agency has grown and become more completely staffed, employee utilization and

intra-agency transfers and promotions have become an increasingly important means of filling vacancies. The potentialities of employee utilization on an international scale are only beginning to receive the consideration they deserve. One can easily see the advantages to such an international staff of the interchange of personnel between the various offices located throughout the world. This aspect of personnel administration can well be recognized in any international organization as having real benefit.

#### STAFF TRAINING

IN WELDING TOGETHER an international staff the significance of a well-rounded training program is easily recognized. The UNRRA training program has taken the form of a short course given to field employees as soon as they are inducted into the service, as well as in-service training. Field employees recruited in this country and in Canada have been given training on the campus of the University of Maryland, located a few miles from the headquarters office. The course has run from two to six weeks and has included such subjects as area study, language study, background and purpose of UNRRA, and international relief. The instruction has been given by the UNRRA staff supplemented by special lecturers. Trainees are housed in dormitories on the campus and receive full compensation during the training period. Activities of an extra-curricular nature have been developed by the group itself and group discussions on a variety of subjects have been encouraged. Extensive use has been made of visual means of training and of UNRRA personnel returned from field assignments. Obviously, such a course of training is not designed to equip employees in their particular profession or assignment but rather is conceived of as a means of orienting staff to the purposes and plans of UNRRA and to familiarize them with the problems, conditions, and peoples of the areas in which activities will be carried on.

During the training period the employees are evaluated by a standing committee composed of representatives of the Training Branch and operating divisions. The committee is empowered to recommend separations when evidence so warrants. Thus the observa-

tion of the personnel in a group activity situation becomes a part of the selective process.

A similar training program has been followed in the European Regional Office. Recently a center was established in France for the training and integrating of personnel which will make up the operational teams for the Displaced Persons' program in Germany. Country missions have been aware of the need for training and in many instances have devoted considerable time to it when the staff is first assembled.

The headquarters office in-service training program has included employee induction and orientation and a continuing program of staff luncheons designed to acquaint the staff with developments within the agency here and abroad. Special courses in techniques have been presented to such groups as telephone operators and administrative assistants.

The UNRRA experience to date would indicate that the possibilities of a well-rounded integrated training program cannot be over-emphasized. Much of it must take place near the scene of action and, insofar as possible, after the personnel from the several different countries have been assembled.

#### EMPLOYEE ACTIVITIES

**L**OCATED in the Personnel and Training Division at UNRRA Headquarters is an office of employee counseling. The employee counselors have assumed responsibility for inducing new employees, assisting employees to make adjustments to the organization, rendering such services as giving information on housing and recreation, and conducting exit interviews. This program has been particularly helpful to personnel coming from other nations to Washington. Its counterpart has existed in the regional office in London and some work of a similar nature has been done in certain of the country missions.

Staff societies have been organized in Washington, London, and in Cairo. These have taken the form of general agency-wide organizations and for the most part are concerned with employee activities. The Headquarters society has committees on such matters as international civil service, grievances, and recreational activities.

Recognition is given to the importance of

individual counseling of field employees and giving them adequate information on such matters as home allotments, insurance, clothing and travel arrangements.

Recently it has been necessary to devise a comprehensive procedure to handle matters of employees returning from the field. The Personnel and Training Division interviews such employees in order to benefit by their experiences, assists in arrangements concerning compensation, health, and return of agency property. Their return to duty, termination, or reassignment has been fitted into the employee utilization program.

There has been established for field employees a workmen's compensation plan, group insurance, and a per diem living allowance. At the outset, recognizing that UNRRA was a temporary agency, provisions were made for a provident fund whereby five per cent of an employee's pay is withheld which is matched by seven and one-half per cent contribution from the agency. The employee receives this in full at the time of resignation if he has at least six months of satisfactory service.

#### PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT

**A**S THE DEVELOPMENT of the UNRRA program has progressed from the planning to the operational stage there has been a definite and carefully planned program of decentralizing management control out of the Headquarters Office into the two regional offices (London and Sydney) or directly into the country missions. Mission chiefs have been delegated a wide variety of personnel management responsibilities, such as the authority to effect promotions, dismissals, changes of assignments and stations, and reclassifications up to grade 12 (\$6,000). The headquarters office has recently followed the policy of recruiting personnel for the country missions only at their specific request. From the outset, the mission chiefs were given a wide latitude of responsibility for such factors as working conditions, schedule of working hours, and control of leave. The headquarters office has augmented the mission chiefs' functions by preparing statements of standard practices.

In the preparation of such statements, the Division has had the advice and assistance of a Personnel Policy Committee composed of op-



erating officials. The same committee has aided in the establishment of personnel management practices for the headquarters office. Until very recently a standing administrative committee in the European regional office had considerable authority of an operational nature in personnel management.

#### CONCLUSIONS

AS THE UNRRA program has progressed a number of employees have returned to Washington and London from field assignments. When they are interviewed and their cases considered it is very obvious that some should not have been employed for field assignments. Some could not take it physically; others were not equipped emotionally for the tasks of organizing and operating a relief and rehabilitation program in areas thrown into upheaval by total war. But the great majority have made the necessary adjustments to the operating situations and have rendered a creditable service. Of prime importance is the question, "What can the administration gain in terms of improved personnel practices from both groups?"

Certain factors have become more obviously important to the employment and training procedures. Physical fitness is now recognized more forcefully than ever before. The physical examination prior to entrance on duty is supplemented by a second given during the training period. The all too short training program for the Displaced Persons Operations includes a program of physical exercises.

As is true in all programs, failure or success of people is more often a matter of personal

qualities rather than technical or professional proficiency. International recruitment and working in war-torn areas serve to accentuate this and all phases of the personnel program must be geared into its full recognition—employment, training, and personnel management. Compensation, utilization of the staff, and conditions of employment must be constituted in a manner conducive to the expression of the best in each employee. It must be recognized that the place to manage personnel is on or near the scene of action, not at some far distant office located in an entirely different environment. Geography, even with today's rapid travel and communications, is still a prime factor in managing an international civil service.

The introductory statement that UNRRA's experiences in personnel administration would be of value to future international organizations must be considered in terms of the environmental factors of the Administration. Director General Lehman has had the executive responsibility for gathering a staff for a varied program to be operated in the most trying of circumstances at a time when military demands have drained off large numbers of qualified personnel. Personnel has been employed, trained and transported for an eventual operation which could start only when military conditions warranted.

Yet, in spite of these factors—or in part because of them—an experience in international civil service is being gained which will represent certain practices and policies from which future international organizations can profit in planning their operations.



---

# The Personnel Functions in Municipal Management

CLARENCE E. RIDLEY

---

THE TASK OF the chief administrative officer in governmental as in private organizations is to see that things get done. It is his duty and opportunity to marshal and use the available resources to carry out in an efficient and humane manner the program determined upon by the governing board, which in the case of a municipality is the city council. The agencies that assist the administrator in his management activities are the departments or offices specializing in personnel, finance, planning, and legal matters. Almost the whole of management may be expressed in terms of personnel. The administrator plans, but his plans are without meaning until they have been put into effect by the personnel. The administrator organizes, but there is no organization apart from personnel. Organization is simply the distribution of work among different persons and groups of persons. The administrator directs, but he does not direct machines or organization charts or legal abstractions; he directs men and women. In brief, American local government is to a large extent "government by men," and the task of management is therefore to manage men. Defined in these broad terms, personnel management cannot be neatly segregated from the rest of management—either for purposes of discussion or for purposes of organization.

## TECHNIQUE AND MANAGEMENT

ALTHOUGH there is no universally accepted definition of personnel administration in municipal administration, the term is usually applied to those activities and techniques which are directed toward the recruiting of qualified employees, the placement of workers in positions where their efforts will result in the

greatest possible yield, the stimulation of employee development, the review and recording of common employee transactions, and the fair and humane separation of employees from the pay roll when their services are no longer required. In other words, "personnel administration" as generally defined is concerned with processes, techniques, procedures, and the like and is primarily an auxiliary function, whereas "personnel management" is by definition managerial in character.

In any well-organized and balanced administration the specialized knowledge and skills of the personnel technician should, of course, be useful tools of management. Unfortunately this ideal relationship has not always been achieved in local government. In altogether too many instances there has been friction or misunderstanding between the technicians and those in management positions. The technicians, on the one hand, have sometimes failed to recognize that they are concerned with means and not ends, that they are specialists whose skills must be blended with the skills of other specialists in the achievement of the purposes of government. At times they have forgotten that their task is to serve the departments and the chief administrator, and they have attempted to direct and control the operating officials.

Administrators and operating officials, on the other hand, have often failed to appreciate the skills of the technicians or have resented any implication that good personnel management requires skills which are not included among their native talents. Many executives fancy themselves as being so infallible in their judgment of men that they scorn the elaborate testing techniques of the personnel examiner. Other administrators, disillusioned or disgusted by the failure of some civil service systems to achieve high standards, have con-

---

CLARENCE E. RIDLEY is Executive Director, International City Managers' Association, and Associate Professor of Political Science at the University of Chicago.

demned all of the formalities of personnel administration.

What is needed is to bring the personnel technician and administrator together so that they may supplement each other. To achieve this coordination of efforts there must be a better mutual understanding between administrators and personnel technicians. It is the purpose of this article to promote better understanding by attempting a brief and non-technical review of the several aspects of the problem with the hope of stimulating continuing analysis of the relationships appropriate for the operation of a modern personnel system in American cities.

#### ORGANIZATION FOR PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT

THE ENACTMENT of sound personnel legislation does not automatically insure effective personnel administration, but intelligently conceived legislation will provide a defensive bulwark against bad personnel practices and the prostitution of the public service. It also will insure some continuity to the merit principle. Experience has clearly shown that a sound, long-range personnel program requires the observance of certain procedures which will best succeed if given some legal status. Otherwise an entire program may be junked by new officers not sympathetic to the merit principle.

Basic personnel legislation may be found in state law or in the constitution, in charter provisions adopted by direct vote of the people, or in less stable, but therefore more flexible, provisions made by city ordinance. Since there is no categorical answer as to what will work and will not work in personnel management, it is difficult to write into the basic law a brief but authoritative statement that would be certain to cover all future needs. Probably the best solution, therefore, rests in using a broad constitutional or charter provision which clearly states basic principles, defines major policies and objectives, and authorizes a further definition of the program by act of the legislative bodies. Stability is thus given to the program; yet sufficient flexibility is provided to meet changing and special conditions. Personnel legislation, in common with other legislation, may thus be saved from too zealous attempts to freeze detailed procedures in organic law.

The organizational structure for personnel administration is an important consideration in the development of a constructive personnel program. Poor organizational arrangements need not be a barrier to successful performance, provided that mutual understanding exists continually regarding the scope, method, and timing of the personnel operations; but poor organization presents a constant risk of inadequate communication among the properly concerned officials, of uncoordinated decisions, or of irresponsible action or inaction. Specialized personnel services are among the municipal activities most commonly assigned to central auxiliary agencies. Although each department might do its own examining, job classifying, personnel record keeping, and so forth, best results can be expected from a central agency serving all departments. A single agency reduces overhead costs and makes possible the application of uniform personnel procedures.

The traditional personnel agency has been an appointed bipartisan board, in recognition of the judicial and the legislative functions which such an agency carries on. The administrative functions are ordinarily conducted by a full-time or part-time chief examiner or secretary hired by the board. This form of organization is based on the theory that the judicial function requires decision by a group, as opposed to an individual, and that the legislative function requires representatives of multiple interests. Continuity of policy and procedure is attempted by the common provision for overlapping terms.

IN PRACTICE this form of organization has not lived up to the hopes its sponsors held for it. First, a bipartisan agency is in its very essence political and is typically political in its action. There seems to be little to support the theory that inoculating the commission with the vaccine of political partisanship will render personnel administration immune from the ravages of the disease of political partisanship. Second, the expected virtues of considered judgment usually resulting from a body of several members of diverse political, economic, and social views have turned out to be a plague of indecisiveness. Where responsibility for action is divided it becomes easy to post-

pone decisions on important matters until all members can be present, until those in a minority can present their views, or until a quorum can be obtained. Furthermore, certainty and quickness of action in executing a decision which has once been made are not frequently associated with commission control. Third, despite the device of overlapping terms, members of the commission frequently resign or are removed when a new administration comes in, with a resulting noticeable lack of continuity in policy and procedure. Finally, and probably the most important point of all, the legislative and judicial functions and the so-called "negative" control functions have dimmed in importance as compared to the positive administrative function. The concept of a personnel agency as a watchdog to guard against political spoilsmen has changed to one of an agency designed to improve the public service in every possible way. Personnel management has come to be recognized as the direct responsibility of the chief administrator. If the personnel administrator is appointed by an independent board he has no responsibility to the chief administrator, and the "positive" personnel administration which either desires to carry on will ordinarily not be efficiently and economically integrated with the activities of the other.

Recent developments in the organization of personnel services have recognized the shortcomings of the traditional board or commission. In the recent adoptions of formal personnel programs there has been a definite trend toward the limitation of boards, if they are retained at all, to advisory functions and toward the conferral of administrative functions upon a personnel administrator who is responsible to the chief executive of the jurisdiction. Under this type of organization, the responsibility for the management of the personnel agency is centered, and quickness of action is assured. There is no delay in important matters until such time as a full commission can meet and no inaction because of divided counsel or inability to agree. The quasi-legislative and quasi-judicial functions of the personnel agency are no more pronounced than those of public health or police departments, which are commonly headed by a single administrator. Experience has demonstrated that im-

proved administration and fairer dealing have come about through the abolition of administrative commissions in favor of a single, responsible head.

#### DISTRIBUTION OF PERSONNEL FUNCTIONS

IT SHOULD NOT be thought, however, that a central personnel agency can singlehandedly produce a sound personnel program. Every individual in the government shares in the success or failure of the program. Personnel administration is not something that can be isolated from the other phases of government. Its problems permeate virtually every day-to-day administrative problem. All employees, from the top down, must be taught to think of the significance in terms of personnel administration of everything they do. It is the responsibility of the chief administrator to make his employees "personnel conscious." The responsibilities of the several divisions of the government in the personnel program may be reviewed briefly.

*The Council.* The basic decisions affecting the personnel program are made by the legislative body, the council. In most cases the council must adopt legislation or ordinances establishing the personnel agency and defining the general policies of the city relative to methods of personnel recruitment, salaries and wages, conditions of employment, retirement plans, and so forth. Furthermore, its power to make appropriations gives the council a continuous power over the number and caliber of employees, as well as power to determine in broad outline what the work of employees will be. Although a wise council will not attempt to legislate in detail on all personnel matters, it must never be forgotten that the final power of decision on personnel questions rests with the legislative body. Administrative agencies that operate independent of the municipal corporation should be compelled to use the technical services of the city personnel agency.

*Management.* The chief administrator is, or should be, the chief personnel officer of the city. To the heads of the various departments and agencies he may delegate much of his authority to provide specific direction and control over employees, and to the central personnel agency he may assign much of the specialized personnel work common to all agencies.



He must retain, however, the final authority and responsibility for the formulation, within the legislative framework, of the basic policies and standards that will govern personnel administration throughout the entire organization.

*The Personnel Agency.* This agency is responsible for the application of the broad policies and standards outlined by the council and the chief administrator. It provides certain personnel services to the other departments and agencies, and it is expected to keep abreast of the newest and best techniques available in the field of personnel administration. In some states technical assistance is furnished either by the state personnel agency, as in New York and California, or by the state league of municipalities, as in Michigan, thus making possible for smaller cities a standard of personnel administration comparable to that of a large well-staffed agency. In addition to these auxiliary services, the personnel agency, or at least certain of its officers, have managerial functions to perform. The head of the personnel agency should not only direct the technical work of the agency, but he should serve as an aid to the chief administrator in personnel matters, advising his superior on questions of personnel policy and translating the administrator's policies into specific regulations, procedures, and the like. A similar service may be provided to department heads by the chief personnel officer or his principal assistants.

*Department Heads.* A great deal of the personnel work in any organization must be done by the heads of the several departments and agencies. They formulate the plans and policies for their particular agencies—subject to the guidance and approval of the chief administrator and the council—and they issue the orders necessary to put these plans and policies into effect. They are closer to the employees and more familiar with operating problems than the chief administrator or the personnel agency and are therefore in the best position to make decisions on training needs, placement problems, salary increase awards, and a host of other problems. In cities where the employees of a single department may number several hundred, the heads of these large departments often find it necessary to set up a departmental personnel office of their own to

centralize these personnel activities within the department.

*Supervisors.* Most of the specific direction, training and appraisal of employee performance must of necessity be provided by the various supervisory officials in the several departments, whatever their rank and title may be. The immediate superior of an employee is not only the channel through which orders and control from above are applied, but he is also a source of detailed information regarding employees and employment conditions. No discussion of personnel administration is complete that fails to recognize the important role of the supervisor, foreman, and straw-boss.

*Employees.* Personnel administration is not applied solely from top to bottom in an organization. Every employee in the organization plays a part—active or passive—in the formulation and execution of personnel programs. If he does nothing else, he receives direction and instruction, and his responsiveness or lack of responsiveness to direction and training affect the morale of the organization, as well as the quality of its performance. Employees, either as individuals or acting in organized groups, contribute actively to the formulation of personnel policies and standards, especially with respect to such problems as salaries, hours, working conditions, and separations from the service.

#### PERSONNEL UNDER COUNCIL-MANAGER PLAN

THERE IS NO one pattern of administering the personnel job in council-manager governed cities, and practice varies widely. In many cities some sort of civil service system, usually independent of the administrative branch of the government, was in existence when the manager plan was adopted and the easy way was to follow the status quo. In other cases the attitude still prevailed that the chief administrator could not be trusted to administer personnel policies and so the "independent" board was adopted. In the more recent council-manager charters and in those older council-manager cities that have recently, for the first time, established formal personnel systems, the trend is definitely toward the recognition of personnel administration as an arm of management and therefore a direct responsibility of the chief administrator.



A number of council-manager cities have set up central personnel departments headed by a personnel director and with a personnel advisory board. The personnel director, appointed by and responsible to the city manager, administers the merit system and is secretary of the personnel advisory board. The advisory board usually is composed of three to five citizens, one selected by each of the governing agencies in case there are independent operating boards or commissions, one or more by the city council, and one by the employees' organization. This board acts only in an advisory capacity to receive, investigate, and report to the appointing authority on any employee's complaint of discrimination or unfair treatment, and on request advises the appointing authorities and the personnel director concerning personnel problems and policies. The advisory board recognizes the definite management character of the personnel job, the citizen interest in safeguarding public personnel, and the propriety of an employee voice in the administration of the personnel function.

#### CONCLUSIONS

**I**T SEEMS quite clear that no administrator can be held strictly accountable for administrative results unless he retains final authority over personnel. He can delegate such techniques as examining, classification, and service ratings to auxiliary agencies, but he cannot afford to delegate the determination of basic standards of qualification and performance, the authority to administer disciplinary measures, the formulation of employee relations policies, or the responsibility for maintaining the morale of the administrative personnel. In very small cities he may require little or no assistance in the management of personnel, aside from such technical aid as he may contract for. As the organization becomes more

complex, however, he needs assistance. He needs a person or an agency to implement the general standards of qualification with specific requirements, to administer the machinery of discipline and to report the effectiveness of disciplinary action applied, to collect information and conduct preliminary negotiations as the basis for the formulation of employee relation policies, or to advise the administrator as to the status of employee morale and make suggestions for its improvement.

Personnel administration by a singleheaded agency responsible to the chief executive is slowly but surely being accepted. Prior to 1900 the weak mayor-council plan, characterized by a large city council with numerous committees and separate boards and commissions, was found in most cities. Toward the close of the century the strong mayor plan emerged, and during the first decade of this century both the commission and the council-manager plans were inaugurated. During the last four or five decades there has been a definite trend away from separate boards and commissions, and a growing recognition of the importance of administrative management as represented by the growth of the strong mayor and council-manager plans and the decline of the commission and weak mayor-council forms. It has been found that the administration of municipal services can be integrated most effectively when the heads of the various activities are directly under the supervision and control of a single administrator. There is no more need for a separate commission or board for the personnel function than for the fire, police, or public works departments. Experience has proved, at least under the council-manager plan, that a single administrator can be trusted to deal fairly with personnel on whom he must depend to carry out those functions for which he is held strictly accountable by the city council.

# Interests of Public Administrators

EDWARD K. STRONG, JR.

DOES THE TERM "public administrator" refer to a more or less homogeneous group of men, or is it used to refer to the occupants of upper level jobs in the public service without implication as to similarity among the individuals? In planning curricula for the training of young men and women for future public service it is important to know the answer to this question—to know whether there are actually different kinds of people in public administration. In formulating policies as to the selection, training, and promotion of people in civil service positions it is equally important to know whether public administrators, in any sense, belong to one general group or to several subgroups.

Problems of this sort have been considered by the Committee on Public Administration of the Social Science Research Council, and in 1940 the Committee voted to cooperate with the writer in a study of the interests of public administrators. The Committee agreed to secure properly filled out *Vocational Interest Blanks* from a good sample of public administrators. To that end they sent out about 700 blanks of which 550 were returned. A number of agencies cooperated, each sending blanks to men who, they judged, were successful administrators. Under the circumstances there must have been varying standards as to "success" but in any case the public administrators included in this study are recognized by competent experts as meeting such requirements. Although the Committee on Public Administration collaborated with the author during the early stages of the study, the returned *Vocational Interest Blanks* were analyzed under the direction of the author and the present report is his own.

EDWARD K. STRONG, JR., is Director of Vocational Interest Research and Professor of Psychology, Graduate School of Business, Stanford University, California.

## CLASSIFICATIONS OF ADMINISTRATORS

ONE WAY TO DECIDE whether or not public administrators are a homogeneous group as far as their interests are concerned is to divide them into subgroups on some reasonable basis and then see if the subgroups all have approximately the same interests.

For many of the 579<sup>1</sup> public administrators it was easy to decide that they themselves and the men under them perform a certain function; for others this was impossible, because they direct employees who are engaged in many different activities. Thus a chief statistician directs a group of statistical workers whereas a city manager directs department heads, each specialized in a different function. The chief distinction between the two types, to repeat, is that the former supervises a fairly homogeneous group of employees primarily performing one function, whereas the latter directs a heterogeneous group of subordinates performing a variety of functions. The former have been grouped under functional titles, such as welfare, personnel, etc., and the latter have been called general managers and grouped under the job name, such as city manager, prison warden, etc. Table 3 lists fifteen functional subgroups and six general manager subgroups. The federal administrator subgroup includes men from the Departments of Agriculture and Commerce, from the Civil Aeronautics Authority, and from the Tennessee Valley Authority.

It is unlikely that anyone else would arrive

<sup>1</sup> Three blanks of forest service administrators and 41 blanks of forest supervisors from our files have been used together with 550 blanks secured by the Committee making a total of 594. Ten of the 550 men obviously were not public administrators and five could not be classified. With these fifteen deducted there remained 579 blanks upon which the study is primarily based. Similar data from our files concerning city school superintendents and various business and professional groups are used for purposes of comparison.

at exactly the same classification or would have assigned many border line cases to the same subgroups as did the writer. The internal consistency of the data as a whole convinces the writer, however, that the classification has real merit.

Income data tend to support the conclusion that the respondents were generally in responsible positions in the public service. As nearly as could be determined the income of 518 of the public administrators was as follows:

| Salary Range            | Number |
|-------------------------|--------|
| \$3,000 to \$4,999..... | 141    |
| 5,000 to 6,999.....     | 231    |
| 7,000 to 8,999.....     | 112    |
| 9,000 and upwards.....  | 34     |

This gives a mean income of approximately \$6,000 per annum for the group. When the generally low level of salaries in governmental positions is considered, along with the fact that these data were collected before wartime adjustments in salaries, it is clear that the panel was selected from the upper pay levels of the public service.

#### EDUCATIONAL PATTERNS

THE AVERAGE NUMBER of years of formal education for the public administrators as a whole was 15.9, one-tenth of a year short of college graduation. This figure is based on those who reported their education and does not include night school, business school, and correspondence school courses. If such courses could be properly evaluated and added to the total it would bring the average above that of college graduation. As it is 75 per cent report graduation from college and 36 per cent report one or more years of graduate work. The remaining 25 per cent report 6 to 15 years of education.

The fields of specialization of study for the larger subgroups differ appreciably. The most popular major was engineering-chemistry-physics with 23 per cent. The next three majors in order of popularity were: biology-agriculture-forestry, 16 per cent; medicine, 13 per cent; and law, 13 per cent. Business was fifth with 11 per cent. Only 17 per cent had majored in either business or public administration.

Some groups are very homogeneous as to their major field, such as engineer, chemist,

physicist, forest service and public health, as is quite appropriate. Other groups are composed of men who have majored in widely different subjects, as for example, welfare and personnel.

THERE IS A definite relationship between the extent to which subgroups differ in their interests from the average of all and the percentage of members in a subgroup whose education is concentrated in one scholastic field. On the basis of homogeneity of college major we should expect the subgroups to differ in interests from the average of all in this order: engineers, chemist-physicists, public health, forest service, city manager, recreation, hospital superintendent, comptroller-finance, statistician, personnel, federal administrator, miscellaneous, welfare. This sequence correlates .80 with the rank order of subgroups in Table 3, counting from the bottom up.

The extent to which these subgroups are similar to one another may apparently be explained in terms of degree of homogeneity involved. If two groups are each homogeneous then there is a possibility of marked difference between them, but if two groups are markedly heterogeneous the likelihood is that any summaries of their interests will prove to be much alike. Engineers and public health officials have all specialized in their respective fields; they are each homogeneous with respect to their education and hence can differ appreciably, as they do. Personnel and welfare administrators are distinctly heterogeneous as to their education and hence can be much alike, on the average, as they are.

One might argue that the similarities and differences pointed out in this article between subgroups of administration are a result of education. Most of the data in our possession convinces us, however, that the opposite conclusion is more tenable, namely, that these men differed originally and sought different types of education in harmony with their different interests and abilities.<sup>2</sup>

The different subgroups are similar or dis-

<sup>2</sup>E. K. Strong, Jr., *Vocational Interests of Men and Women* (1943), Chapters 15 and 16. See also, H. D. Carter, *Vocational Interests and Job Orientation—a Ten-Year Survey*, Applied Psychology Monographs, 1944, No. 2, Chapters 4 and 5. Both published by Stanford University Press.

similar depending upon the kinds of work required, each kind of work attracting a certain type of man. When the kind of work is clear cut and well established we may expect a fairly homogeneous group of men. When the kind of work is new and so not likely to be clear cut and well recognized, a more heterogeneous group of men are likely to be found therein. This might explain the lack of agreement in educational preparation of welfare and personnel people.

#### LIKES AND DISLIKES OF ADMINISTRATORS

CONSIDERABLE INSIGHT as to the characteristics of public administrators can be obtained by noting among 400 items on the *Vocational Interest Blank* those they like and dislike. There are two ways of estimating what likes and dislikes are significant. One way is by recording items that a high percentage of the men like or dislike. This procedure gives results which agree in the main with all occupations. Most men, for example, say that they would like to be an explorer and few that they would like to be an undertaker.<sup>3</sup> A second way is by recording items that more public administrators like or dislike than do men in general. This is the procedure that has been followed below. In what follows it must be kept in mind, accordingly, that when a statement is made that public administrators like a given item it does not mean necessarily that a majority like it, but only that more public administrators like it than does the average successful business and professional man.

From a list of one hundred occupations listed on the interest blank, public administrators check those which indicate interest in all sorts of governmental activities and other occupations not restricted to government, including writing, the better paid forms of office work, managerial positions, and certain mechanical pursuits such as architect, building contractor, carpenter, toolmaker, locomotive engineer, civil engineer, mining superintendent, farmer-rancher, physician, and surgeon. But they would not like to be advertising men, salesmen, or buyers of merchandise.

They are interested in mathematics, biologi-

cal sciences, and social sciences, but not physical sciences; in English composition and public speaking, but not in art, music, and poetry. They like the magazines "Time," "New Republic," and "Atlantic Monthly," but not "American Magazine" and "Popular Mechanics." They like "people who assume leadership" and "independents in politics," but not "thrifty" and "conservative people," "optimists," "athletic men," or "people who have made a fortune in business."

Among an assortment of activities of all kinds, they choose "interviewing clients" or "men for a job," but not "prospects in selling." They like "teaching adults," "meeting and directing people," "taking responsibility," "adjusting difficulties of others," "meeting new situations," and "continually changing activities." They show no special interest in handling mechanical contrivances or in activities involving physical effort and daredeviltry.

From among ten activities associated with manufacturing an object they prefer to supervise its manufacture, teach its use, and interest the public through public addresses. They do not wish to sell the machines, prepare the advertising, or create some new artistic effect.

FROM AMONG ten characteristics of their job, they prefer to have "opportunity to make use of all one's knowledge and experience" and to have "co-workers who are congenial, competent, and adequate in number." The least interest is reported in "salary received for their work," "steadiness and permanence of work," and "opportunity for promotion." Generally a group desires those characteristics they most feel the need of and lists last those with which they are most satisfied. On this basis these men are satisfied with their income, tenure, and promotional possibilities.

The following preferences give some idea of the kind of job they desire. They want mental activity, not physical; working indoors, not outdoors; dealing with people, not things; work which is interesting with modest income rather than less interesting work with large income; working in a large organization rather than working for oneself; a definite salary, not a commission on what is done; great variety in the work rather than similarity. They wish to carry out the program of a superior who is

<sup>3</sup>E. K. Strong, Jr., *Vocational Interests of Men and Women*, Chapter 6.



respected rather than work for themselves; they seek technical rather than supervisory responsibility; they like persuading others rather than ordering them; delegating work to others rather than doing it themselves.

The last section of the *Vocational Interest Blank* affords an opportunity to show what kind of person one thinks he is. Most men indicate in our studies that they think quite well of themselves. Public administrators rate themselves lower than the average as to possessing "mechanical ingenuity," ability to "plan work in detail," and "get work done on time." They rate themselves higher than the average on such items as: "am quite sure of myself," "can carry out plans assigned by other people," "enter into a situation and enthusiastically carry out the program," "can discriminate between more or less important matters," "have good judgment in appraising values," "write a concise, well-organized report," and "ability to meet emergencies quickly and effectively." In handling people they claim the following: "usually start activities in my group," "put drive into the organization," "usually get other people to do what I want," "stimulate the ambition of my associates," "correct others without giving offense," "show firmness without being easy," "win confidence and loyalty," "smooth out tangles and disagreements between people," and "my advice is sought by many."

The present study deals only with the interests of public administrators, not their abilities. It is believed that, indirectly, the measurement of a man's interests will give clues as to what he will do. Thus, the man with strong scientific interests will probably prefer scientific rather than administrative work and when placed in an administrative position will still direct good research, but not bother too much with the many personnel problems that are always coming up. Similarly, the man with very little office-accounting interest may direct his department quite acceptably if he has a good chief clerk to handle accounts, but, if not, his records may get into an awful snarl.

#### PUBLIC ADMINISTRATOR INTEREST SCALE

IT IS IMPOSSIBLE to summarize directly the many interests listed above. But an interest scale can contrast the interest pattern of public

administrators as a group with men in general, and when each man has been scored on the scale it is possible to determine how each scores in comparison with his fellows. Accordingly an interest scale for public administrators<sup>4</sup> was developed in the same manner as other occupational interest scales.<sup>5</sup> The records of 518 public administrators were used for the purpose but in order to give greater representation to federal administrators each of their 53 blanks was tallied twice. On this basis 571 records were utilized for development of the scale and for determination of norms for the scale.

TABLE I. DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES ON PUBLIC ADMINISTRATOR INTEREST SCALE OF 571 PUBLIC ADMINISTRATORS AND 285 COLLEGE SENIORS

| Score      | Rating | Public Administrators * | College Seniors * |
|------------|--------|-------------------------|-------------------|
| 70         | A      | .2                      | —                 |
| 65         | A      | 6.5                     | —                 |
| 60         | A      | 7.2                     | —                 |
| 55         | A      | 19.8                    | —                 |
| 50         | A      | 18.6                    | 2.8               |
| 45         | A      | 15.8                    | 3.2               |
| 40         | B+     | 15.8                    | 9.8               |
| 35         | B      | 9.4                     | 15.8              |
| 30         | B-     | 3.7                     | 27.4              |
| 25         | C+     | 1.9                     | 16.1              |
| 20         | C      | .9                      | 15.4              |
| 15         | C      | .2                      | 6.7               |
| 10         | C      | .2                      | 2.8               |
| Mean Score |        | 50                      | 31.4              |
| Sigma      |        | 10                      | 8.8               |

\* Figures are percentages.

It should be noted that an interest scale weights items according to the degree to which the occupational group checks the item in contrast to that of the men-in-general group. The men-in-general group is composed of successful business and professional men, representative of the upper socio-economic level. As the public administrators are all supposedly successful men and belong to the upper socio-economic level, the interests common to successful men of that level are more or less ignored in the scale and the weights are assigned to such items as differentiate public ad-

<sup>4</sup> The Vocational Interest Blank and Public Administrator Scale are published by Stanford University Press.

<sup>5</sup> E. K. Strong, Jr., *op. cit.*, Chapter 5.

ministrators from business and professional men. It is then possible for public administrators to score very much alike on the public administrator scale provided they all possess certain interests which non-public administrators do not possess to the same degree.

The distribution of scores on the new scale is given in Table I. It approximates a normal distribution more nearly than distributions of scores on most occupational interest scales. Although three-fourths of public administrators are college graduates, the interests of public administrators are not those of mere college graduates as is shown in Table I by the very different distributions of the two groups, there being only 32 per cent overlap between them: (The critical ratio of the difference between means is 28.)

CERTAIN PUBLIC administrators score low on the scale (i.e., 7.1 per cent score below 35 and 3.2 per cent score below 30). These individuals seem to differ from the remainder in being less administrators and more individual workers or the directors of relatively small staffs of technicians. They are more often junior than senior administrators. They average 3.6 years in college, practically the same as the remaining public administrators. Only two did not graduate from high school and 10 had graduate work. Of the 22 who reported their specialization in college, 16 majored in the physical and biological sciences, including here engineering and medicine. Seven of the group are employed as statisticians in the U. S. Bureau of the Census or as scientists in the Bureau of Standards. The remainder are scattered with respect to their employment.

The very low mean scores of the 36 men when rated on the occupational scales for other professions are: minister, 11; Y.M.C.A. physical director, 13; Y.M.C.A. secretary, 13; psychologist, 15; social science teacher, 17; musician, 17; city school superintendent, 19; carpenter, 19; forest service, 20; personnel manager, 20. The six social welfare interests (Occupational group V) average only 15.6, which is very low. This is in striking disagreement to the typical interests of public administrators who average first or second in personnel manager interest and quite high in social science teacher interest.

TABLE II. CORRELATIONS BETWEEN INTERESTS OF MEN IN 35 OCCUPATIONS AND (a) INTERESTS OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATORS, AND (b) INTERESTS OF PERSONNEL MANAGERS IN INDUSTRY.

| Group | Occupation             | Correlation * with Interests of |                    |
|-------|------------------------|---------------------------------|--------------------|
|       |                        | Public Administrators           | Personnel Managers |
| I     | Artist                 | -.27                            | -.47               |
|       | Psychologist           | .19                             | -.08               |
|       | Architect              | -.20                            | -.42               |
|       | Doctor                 | -.21                            | -.51               |
|       | Dentist                | -.23                            | -.51               |
| II    | Mathematician          | -.09                            | -.43               |
|       | Engineer               | -.10                            | -.31               |
|       | Chemist                | -.04                            | -.31               |
| III   | Production Manager     | .12                             | .16                |
| IV    | Aviator                | .06                             | -.13               |
|       | Farmer                 | -.15                            | -.41               |
|       | Carpenter              | -.06                            | -.23               |
|       | Printer                | .14                             | -.05               |
|       | Math-Science Teacher   | .31                             | .12                |
|       | Policeman              | .33                             | .22                |
|       | Forest Service         | .21                             | -.01               |
|       | Y.M.C.A. Physical Dir. | .52                             | .57                |
|       | Personnel              | .75                             | —                  |
|       | Y.M.C.A. Secretary     | .53                             | .70                |
| V     | Social Sci. Teacher    | .53                             | .61                |
|       | City School Supt.      | .55                             | .55                |
|       | Minister               | .44                             | .41                |
| VI    | Musician               | .07                             | -.05               |
| VII   | C. P. Accountant       | .24                             | .25                |
| VIII  | Accountant             | .32                             | .46                |
|       | Office Worker          | .22                             | .48                |
|       | Purchasing Agent       | -.13                            | .09                |
|       | Banker                 | -.05                            | .03                |
| IX    | Sales Manager          | .01                             | .36                |
|       | Real Estate Sales      | -.22                            | .08                |
|       | Life Insurance         | .03                             | .31                |
|       | Advertiser             | -.06                            | .13                |
| X     | Lawyer                 | .09                             | .06                |
|       | Author-Journalist      | -.18                            | -.29               |
| XI    | President Mfg. Co.     | -.27                            | -.13               |

\* Each coefficient is based on the scores of 285 college seniors on the respective interest scales.

The data are too incomplete to arrive at a real conclusion but the writer's hunch is that administrators with low scores on the public administrator interest scale are more professional men at heart than administrators. In other words they prefer to do the work themselves or with the help of a small staff of technical assistants than to direct a larger force engaged in a variety of undertakings.<sup>6</sup>

<sup>6</sup> An analysis of the responses of the 17 men scoring below 30 on the public administrator scale indicates that they

## RELATION TO OTHER OCCUPATIONS

THE INTERESTS of men in thirty-five other occupations have been determined in the same way as have the interests of public administrators, that is, by contrasting their interests in each case with the same men-in-general group. Such a procedure emphasizes the interests that differentiate the group from men in general. This statistical procedure corresponds to what we imply in everyday conversation when we say, for example, that a man is an engineer. We mean he is like other engineers, that he differs from other men as engineers differ from other men. We do not have in mind at such a time the characteristics of engineers that are common to all men.

It has been amply demonstrated that the members of each occupation have a characteristic set of likes and dislikes which are different from the likes and dislikes of other occupations. The differences between occupations vary considerably. Where the differences are relatively small (correlations of .60 or higher) the occupations are grouped together, as shown in the eleven groups set out in Table II.

When the interests representative of public administrators are correlated with the interests of men in 35 other occupations, it appears that the interests of public administrators correlate highest of all (.75) with the interests of personnel managers in industry. (See Table II.) There are only six coefficients over .40 and these are all with social service occupations (Group V). On the basis of their correlations public administrator fits into Group V better than any other group, but of the six correlations between public administrators and the six present occupations in the group only one coefficient is over .60, the remainder ranging from .44 to .55.

---

dislike far more items than the average business and professional man, and public administrators as a whole. They like more than the average only 27 items among 100 occupations, 36 school subjects, 49 amusements, and 48 activities; whereas public administrators like 78 of these items more than the average. The only managerial occupations that they like more than the average are architect and civil engineer. Of the eight other occupations which they like seven are hardly of a managerial nature. In rating their present abilities they report only 9 items more often than the average in contrast to 20 items so reported by public administrators as a whole. Very few of their responses suggest that they are public administrators and most of their responses suggest just the opposite.

CORRESPONDING coefficients between the interests of personnel managers in industry and other occupations are shown in the second column of Table II. There is a surprising agreement between the two sets of data (rank correlation of .81), the chief difference being that the coefficients extend over a greater range in the second set of data than in the first set, which we suspect is caused by greater homogeneity of interests among personnel managers in industry than among public administrators. The similarity of data in the two columns is another way of showing that the interests of public administrators and of industrial personnel men are similar. The interests of personnel men in public and private organizations have much in common.<sup>7</sup> This means, furthermore, that the interests of public administrators on the average are quite similar to the interests of personnel men in the public service.

Correlations based on differential scores, all calculated from the same point of reference (our men-in-general group in this case), have a special significance. Positive correlations between two occupational interests mean that the two occupations both differ from the point of reference in the same direction; minus correlations mean that the two differ in opposite directions from the point of reference. The interests of public administrators differ from men-in-general in the same direction as social service occupations (Group V). Absence of high negative correlations means that none of the occupations listed in the table differ appreciably from men-in-general in the opposite direction from public administrators.

## SUBGROUPS OF ADMINISTRATORS

ALTHOUGH THERE ARE differences in the mean scores of the subgroups ranging from 55.2 for the lawyer subgroup to 40.0 for the office manager subgroup, as shown in Table III, few of the differences are statistically significant. Considering only the subgroups with popula-

---

<sup>7</sup> Public personnel men average 47 on the industrial personnel manager scale, instead of 50; the overlapping in scores is 88 per cent. On the other hand the two differ somewhat in their secondary and tertiary interests, the former having stronger interests in social science occupations and lawyer, the latter having stronger interests in office worker, purchasing agent, accountant, sales manager and president.



tions of 25 or more, we find critical ratios of 3 or more between welfare, personnel, and federal departments, on the one hand, and city manager and public health, on the other. If the first five and last four subgroups are good samples of what they purport to represent, then we may say that the first five subgroups are different from the last four subgroups. Under these conditions the engineering subgroup is very likely also to be different from the first five subgroups. Four of the last five subgroups, it should be noted, are composed of engineers, chemists, physicists, and medical men, for most of our city managers are engineers by training. With these exceptions the subgroups score sufficiently alike to be considered members of one sample.

TABLE III. SCORES OF SUBGROUPS ON A PUBLIC ADMINISTRATOR INTEREST SCALE

| Subgroups            | N   | Mean Score | Sigma | Per Cent of Scores below: |         |
|----------------------|-----|------------|-------|---------------------------|---------|
|                      |     |            |       | B (35)                    | B- (30) |
| Law                  | 5   | 55.2       | —     | 0                         | 0       |
| Social Insurance     | 11  | 54.8       | 8.4   | 0                         | 0       |
| Welfare              | 48  | 53.3       | 10.0  | 4                         | 2       |
| Public Personnel     | 59  | 52.0       | 10.1  | 7                         | 0       |
| Federal Agencies     | 53  | 51.8       | 8.4   | 0                         | 0       |
| Supt. Reform Schools | 9   | 51.0       | —     | 0                         | 0       |
| Statistician         | 28  | 50.9       | 12.5  | 11                        | 4       |
| Recreation           | 17  | 50.7       | 9.1   | 0                         | 0       |
| Taxation             | 15  | 50.1       | 5.7   | 0                         | 0       |
| Compt.-Finance       | 24  | 49.9       | 7.9   | 0                         | 0       |
| Forest Service       | 46  | 49.7       | 8.5   | 4                         | 2       |
| Miscellaneous        | 22  | 49.6       | 12.3  | 9                         | 9       |
| Publicity            | 7   | 49.0       | —     | 14                        | 14      |
| Law Enforcement      | 6   | 48.8       | —     | 17                        | 17      |
| Prison Warden        | 16  | 48.1       | 10.4  | 4                         | 2       |
| Hospital Supt.       | 45  | 47.5       | 10.5  | 11                        | 9       |
| Engineering          | 26  | 46.8       | 10.0  | 15                        | 0       |
| City Manager         | 41  | 45.2       | 9.5   | 10                        | 5       |
| Chemist-Physicist    | 14  | 44.4       | 11.3  | 14                        | 7       |
| Public Health        | 25  | 43.6       | 10.0  | 16                        | 12      |
| Office Manager       | 5   | 40.0       | —     | 20                        | 0       |
| TOTAL                | 522 | 50.0       | 10.0  | 7                         | 3       |

It might be argued that these data are influenced by the size of the subgroups, since the weights on the public administrator scale must be affected more by the 59 public personnel people, for example, than by the 5 office managers. Variation in size of mean score is, however, associated only to a moderate degree with size of the several subgroups, as the rank-order correlation between the two is only .30. The six largest groups have a combined membership of 345 with a mean score on the scale of 50.4 and the six smallest groups have a com-

bined membership of 43 with a mean score slightly larger (i.e., 50.6). The six groups of hospital superintendent, city manager, engineer, public health, chemist-physicist, and office manager have a combined membership of 156 and mean score of 45.7. They have a membership four times that of the six smallest groups but a score 4.9 lower. Actually the peculiar interests of a group affect the mean score more than the size of the group.

#### CONCLUSIONS

THE GROUP of more than five hundred public administrators considered here are drawn from a wide variety of public activities, earning from three to ten thousand dollars a year, with an average income of six thousand dollars. Three-fourths of them are college graduates. They differ, however, appreciably in the courses of study they have pursued. Only about one-sixth of them have majored in business or public administration.

The entire group has been subdivided on the basis of function. These subgroups differ very little in total amount of education but differ in the courses of study in which they have majored. Some evidence here, and more to be published at another time, supports the conclusion that the more a subgroup has specialized in one course of study the more that subgroup will differ in its interests from other subgroups. On the other hand, subgroups composed of men who have specialized in many different courses of study appear to be very much alike in their interests. In other words, lack of homogeneity in training suggests lack of homogeneity in interests and such lack causes a variety of interest scores which give about the same mean interest scores for each of such subgroups. Variation in interest scores of subgroups may be attributed to differences in their training but all our data support the opposite hypothesis; namely, that original differences in interests led to different courses of study.

An occupational interest scale for public administrators has been developed. A small number of public administrators scored low on this scale. The evidence indicates that these men are more nearly professional men at heart than administrators, that is, they prefer to do the work themselves or with the help of a small



staff of technical assistants rather than to direct a larger force engaged in a variety of activities.

Mean scores of subgroups upon the public administrator interest scale indicate that all, or nearly all, the subgroups have interests sufficiently alike so as to be thought of as one group. But this fact can not be accepted as proof that the subgroups are alike with respect to all their interests.<sup>8</sup> The public administrator scale contrasts the interests of public administrators and the interests of supposedly successful business and professional men. As both these contrasted groups are drawn from successful men in the upper socio-economic levels, the resulting scale measures differences between the two groups.

<sup>8</sup> Another report will show that these subgroups differ in many ways from one another.

Public administrators differ from business and professional men as a whole in the same direction as do a sample group of industrial personnel men (correlation of .75) and to a lesser degree as does Group V, i.e., men engaged in social welfare work. This is a rather startling statement at first thought, possibly because we are accustomed to think in terms of functions such as policy formulation, planning, delegating responsibility, and the like when describing administrators, and we do not think of such functions in connection with personnel or social welfare work. But is not the primary function of an administrator that of the coordination of human efforts? What is the management function if it is not the utilization of personnel to the best advantage from the standpoint of the men themselves as well as of the whole enterprise?

# Employee Recreation as a Personnel Function

MARSHALL STALLEY

SINCE THE OUTBREAK of war the armed services have recognized the part recreation plays in building morale. Special Service Officers are "standard equipment," and baseball bats, badminton nets, radios, and movies take their place along with guns, jeeps, and bullets as essential tools of every fighting unit that leaves the country.

More recently the federal government has taken steps to plan and provide a more limited program of recreation services for its civilian war workers. The 250,000 employees of the federal government in Washington are people performing services without which the nation's war program would bog down or fail. They are the civilian workers who staff the Army and Navy headquarters, help control prices and industrial production, and provide those other governmental services essential to a nation at war. Certainly, personnel management faced a need to understand properly the problems of these employees—their relationships to one another, to management, and to the community—and to define the responsibility of the personnel office in working with employees and groups of employees in order to assist them in meeting basic human needs important to management.<sup>1</sup>

## THE FEDERAL RECREATION COMMITTEE

THE MOST COMMON interests among groups of employees are those related to recreation. Clearly, the personnel officers and the

<sup>1</sup>Three years ago Mr. C. P. Hines, Personnel Supervisor, C. & P. Telephone Company, said, "In Washington today, satisfactory adjustment to social groups, both on the job and outside, is the A-1 personnel problem lying behind many of our vexing difficulties resulting in absenteeism and turnover."

MARSHALL STALLEY has been, until recently, Chairman of the Federal Recreation Committee, Federal Council of Personnel Administration, Washington, D. C. He is now Assistant Director of the Postwar Planning Council of Cleveland, Ohio.

government had a responsibility to help employees—particularly the many newcomers to Washington—make the most effective use of their leisure time. Admittedly, the term "leisure time" had lost a great deal of its prewar meaning. The introduction of the 48-hour week, and the other demands made on people's time as a result of the war, meant that employees of the federal government, like people all over the country in all walks of life, had less time for recreation. However, it was increasingly evident that this made planning for recreation all the more necessary. Life is more than an eat-sleep-work existence. Play is an integral part of life itself, and is necessary to maintain full productivity of employees.

Because of the importance of maintaining an effective working force under wartime Washington conditions the personnel directors, meeting in the Federal Council of Personnel Administration, became concerned about the needs of the thousands of new employees for community recreation facilities and services. At about the same time a number of local community agencies in Washington—the Public Recreation Department, the War Hospitality Committee, and the USO—felt that their services were not reaching federal employees, and that they were not getting the expected response to their programs from federal employees. They said they wanted to be helpful, but that they didn't know with whom to work in the federal government. They claimed they were being badgered by a multiplicity of duplicate requests from personnel offices of the various federal agencies. They placed their problem before the Federal Council of Personnel Administration through its Employee Relations Committee.

With this internal interest and external stimulation there was adequate motive for an attempt to meet the problems of employee

recreation. Acting in 1942, upon the recommendation of its Employee Relations Committee, the Council of Personnel Administration, with the support of the Recreation Division of the Office of Community War Services of the Federal Security Agency, created the Federal Recreation Committee. Sixty of the major federal agencies and bureaus designated representatives of their personnel offices for membership on the committee. The Council charged the committee with the responsibility for developing and extending participation among federal employees in recreation activities provided within the community.

UPON THE organization of the Federal Recreation Committee, there was raised immediately the question: to what extent should the personnel office assume responsibility for employee services and for assisting employees in terms of their recreational needs? Thus, the first problem faced by the committee was to decide on the scope and emphasis of its operations. The committee felt that it was not primarily interested in meeting the recreational needs of employees for the sake of meeting those needs; but, rather in using recreation to strengthen the morale and increase the productivity of the individual employee, reduce turnover and absenteeism, and increase production.

There seemed to be no need and no justification for attempting to provide direct, complete recreational services operated within the framework of the personnel office. It was important, rather, to make fullest utilization of those facilities within the community, either already available or potentially available. Therefore, the personnel offices needed to offer only those supplementary services necessary to facilitate the use of these community recreation resources, or to provide, at the most, for those necessary services which could not be secured through community agencies.

Obviously, the functions of the personnel offices in governmental agencies in relation to recreation needs went beyond maintaining bulletin boards, posting notices of dances offered by the various state societies, and announcing USO activities in employee publications. It was equally obvious that there was no place in a modern personnel management pro-

gram for old-fashioned paternalism. But there was clearly a need for establishing closer working relationships between personnel departments and community recreation facilities and services. The facilities needed to be brought to the people. And the people needed to be brought to the facilities. The personnel offices, the committee believed, could make an important contribution in helping to put the facilities in touch with the employees, and the employees in touch with the facilities.

#### ACTIVITIES OF THE COMMITTEE

THE FIRST ACTIVITY of the Federal Recreation Committee was the development of a directory of the individuals in the federal government who were concerned with recreation needs of employees. This answered the immediate request of local recreation agencies that they be given a "who's who" of people with whom to work.

Next, one of the local radio stations proposed putting on a weekly recreation hour designed especially for government workers. A "pipeline" was installed to the Arlington Farms Dormitory (Girl's Town), where the programs were produced, and the radio station, in cooperation with the federal bureaus, has conducted an entertainment program patterned after the quiz shows, and known as the "Battle of the Bureaus."

A number of other developments strengthening recreation for federal workers occurred in rapid succession. The Washington Workshop, a group of federal employees, organized a motion picture service showing film classics and documentary films every Sunday afternoon in the auditorium of the Department of Agriculture. Washington can be a rather dull town on Sundays to newcomers and strangers, and the motion picture program provided a recreational opportunity for 1,000 to 1,500 federal workers every Sunday.

The local Public Recreation Department cooperated by providing entertainment facilities and services within the government cafeterias outside of working hours. The USO, which originally had provided services designed only for military personnel, expanded its program to meet the interests of federal workers, particularly the needs of night-shift workers and Negro employees.

The National Symphony Orchestra was concerned with the possibility of increased services to federal employees, as well as the possibility of increasing the income of its sustaining fund from federal employees. The orchestra management approached the city editors of the local papers and they turned the proposal over to the Recreation Committee for consideration. The committee suggested a weekly forum on music to be available to all government workers as an educational activity without charge, and also the scheduling of special concerts with admission charges consistent with the pocketbook of the federal worker. The suggestion was made that an advisory committee of representative employees of federal agencies be established to work with the National Symphony. The Symphony accepted all of these recommendations and has been offering a series of federal employee concerts. In turn, federal employees, having become identified with the work of the Symphony, have helped in the financial support of the organization.

Recreation activities for government workers in Washington now range from bird hikes in the public parks to formal dances at the swank Wardman Park Hotel. Government girls in long dresses ride the street cars to entertain, and be entertained by, service men from nearby Camp George J. Meade in Maryland. Dozens of employee newspapers bearing items regarding recreational opportunities are issued weekly with the cooperation of federal personnel offices. With a little encouragement, employee groups have found a variety of means for breaking down the social isolation that often accompanies life in a strange city. Breakfast clubs and supper clubs have been organized, and wives of Cabinet officers have opened private residences for recreation for civilian war workers.

**I**N ALL OF ITS activities the Federal Recreation Committee has served to articulate the needs and interests of federal employees to the community's recreation agencies—public, private, and commercial. The committee has not been engaged in the operation of direct services. Its function has been to channel unmet needs to those agencies best equipped to meet them, and to point up, in the interest of ef-

fective personnel administration, the government's obligation to be concerned about the total person.

Increasingly, the community's facilities have been brought closer to those individuals who have come to Washington from the towns, hamlets, and villages of the nation and who all too frequently found themselves far removed from the community spirit they knew in their former homes. Recreation, with the help of the personnel offices, has assisted "employees" in becoming "people," and therefore better employees. It has helped to provide a sense of belonging to the community by assisting individuals in identifying themselves with groups engaged in common efforts.

Museums, libraries, and public buildings in Washington tended, we found, to be open during those hours when people worked and closed during those hours when working people had time for recreation. We thought this was a curious thing, and representatives from the personnel offices began working with the public buildings people. It wasn't always easy, but a more enlightened attitude, from our point of view, developed on the part of the people who control the buildings. Museums have modified their policies to provide programs in the evenings for people who work during the day, and that includes most of us. They have offered special activities on Sundays and their experience has been that the public—including large numbers of federal employees—turns out.

A number of employees went to their personnel offices and asked what could be done to get permission to see the Capitol. A year previously the Capitol had been opened to military personnel, but closed to civilians. Representatives of federal personnel offices talked with the individuals who decide who may visit the Capitol and at what hours. Interested community agencies supported the request of the government girls and boys that they have a chance to visit the building. The newspapers helped. As a result the Capitol was reopened to civilians on Sunday afternoons and federal employees turned out by the hundreds.

These are some of the arrangements for recreation that have been of interest to the Federal Recreation Committee. They are



things that just do not happen by themselves. They come about through representatives of the agencies within the community working with people from the personnel offices. The committee is confident that there is value in working closely with community agencies and that those opportunities for employee recreation which have been developed through this method have assisted in some measure in contributing to an improved program of personnel administration in Washington.

#### PRINCIPLES OF EMPLOYEE RECREATION

THE EXPERIENCE in developing employee recreation activities within the federal services leads us to believe that there are certain "principles" conducive to the success of such a program. We believe that these ten "principles" are applicable from agency to agency and from locality to locality.

1. The planning of employee recreation and related employee services should be developed as an integral part of the whole employee relations program of the personnel office. It is not an activity to be operated independently of the personnel office or of other personnel functions.

2. Employee recreation should be based on the actual needs of employees. The enrollment of large numbers in particular activities is not proof in itself that a need is being met. People participate in group activities not only because of the satisfaction they gain through participation, but sometimes because of the status they might lose by failure to participate. Unless the employee recreation program is based on the actual needs and interests of employees it will not serve either management or employees.

3. Program planning should be based on facts. Fact-finding, therefore, is an integral part in the development of the recreation program and is necessary in order to determine the specific recreation needs and interests of employees. In planning services for employees attention should be given to the discovery of all available factual knowledge on the particular project under consideration. Given an objective, the foundation of an effective employee services program, like all planning activities, is research into the facts bearing upon the problem. The authority behind the plan-

ner of recreation, or any planner in the democratic sense, is not arbitrary authority but is inherent in the situation itself.

4. Persons engaged in working with groups of employees in the development of a recreation and employee services program should stimulate, but not manipulate; develop, but not sponsor; initiate, but not administer. Such persons have no "line" authority, but rather the "authority of ideas."

5. The participation of employees in the planning of a recreation program is essential. An employee recreation program has no validity if it is superimposed from the top down. It meets the needs of management and employees only as it serves people. We have seen examples in the past of employee recreation associations and paternalistic recreation in industry that have failed because of the fact that the employees were not sufficiently brought into the planning of the activities, particularly in the early stages. The personnel office has a responsibility to secure the interested participation of employees and to work with employee groups, organizations, and unions (where they exist) in the formulation of the program.

6. In the planning of an employee recreation program careful consideration should be given to factors such as sex, age, and race. The program needs to be developed consistently with the particular needs of special groups. The requirements of various groups of employees require consideration in order to insure that the activities which are provided are made available to all groups over a long-term period.

7. In planning the over-all program, special effort should be made to offer a variety and balance of choices. The program should offer opportunities for participation in small group activities as well as in mass activities, educational programs as well as purely entertainment events.

8. Practical working relationships should be established with community groups and agencies, both public and private, so that the services and facilities in the community may be made available to employees. Full utilization should be made of existing community recreation resources, facilities, and services. Unlike the traditional paternalistic industrial recreation program, emphasis should be placed on

extending community facilities to employees and on the full use of the recreation resources of schools, libraries, museums, and community centers.

9. Only those services should be provided directly by management which are not already available in the community or cannot be made available through community effort. However, in crowded, war-congested areas, or in offices or plants isolated from or inaccessible to community services, it is often necessary for management to take positive steps through its personnel office to provide certain community services for its employees which would not otherwise be provided. In such instances the services can be clearly justified as essential to the maintenance of employee efficiency and morale, and are thus to be thought of as integral parts of the management of the organization.

10. The employee recreation program is completely successful only when its activities are well known to employees. A variety of channels of communication should be utilized, including conveniently located bulletin boards where information is changed frequently, house organs, orientation interviews, and other devices to bring the program to the attention of the employees. The character of the publicity program, as well as its completeness, is important in securing the desired employee participation in the recreation program.

#### SUMMARY

RECREATION has been presented to the public as a means for cutting down on juvenile delinquency, improving health, and, most recently, as a remedy for the problem of absenteeism. Actually, recreation is not something to cure something else. It is something to keep well with—a thing in itself. It is a normal part of life.

While recreation is admittedly no cure-all for the problems and frustrations facing personnel administration, it can play a significant part in developing and maintaining the morale of employees, reducing turnover and absenteeism, and increasing the productivity of workers. Because of this, personnel management has a stake in recreation; and a recreation program for employees has a place in a total program of personnel administration. The development of employee relations programs, of which recreation is an important part, is a new function of personnel administration. Like job classification, selection, placement, and training, this new activity of the personnel office has a peculiar contribution to make in any personnel program which recognizes the "human element in management," whether the size of the employed group is large or small, whether the organization is operated out of private or public funds, or whether it functions on a federal, state, or municipal level.

# COURT DECISIONS

EDITED BY H. ELIOT KAPLAN

**Independent Contracts—Validity—Evasion of Civil Service Provisions.** Where a civil service employee becomes ineligible to hold his position by virtue of statutory provisions compelling his retirement, it is an improper evasion of these provisions for the city appointing authorities to enter into a contract with the former employee to have him continue to perform the same duties. A taxpayer may maintain an action to prevent disbursement of city funds under such illegal contract. (*Cranak v. Link*, 17 N. W. [2d] 359 [Minn.]) The court pointed out that while under certain charter provisions it was proper to employ non-civil service personnel, it would be an obvious evasion of civil service requirements to change the title of the position, remove it from the classified service, and have its duties performed by the same person, outside the scope of the civil service system.

**Officers and Employees—Borough Police Chief—Status.** Questions involving the distinction between officers and employees, and sometimes between state officers and local officers, occasionally arise in civil service decisions. It is, therefore, interesting to note the distinction made even in cases which do not directly involve a civil service issue. In *Commonwealth v. Bausewine*, 40 Atl. (2d) 919 (Pa.), the court ruled that a borough chief of police was not an "officer of the commonwealth" within the statute prohibiting bribery. The opinion of the court reads in part:

He is an officer of a borough within the commonwealth, but not an official of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania. An analysis of the language in this statute confirms that view. Section 303, supra, relates to a thing to be attained or influenced by a bribe. "Vote, opinion, verdict, award, judgment, decree, or behavior" are specified. A chief of police has no official relation with any of these matters. Those who come within the provisions of that section are legislators, judges, jurors, etc., who make up the legislative and judicial branches of our government. They are the officers of the commonwealth within the purview of the statute. Nothing is said in this section about municipal officers.

H. ELIOT KAPLAN is Executive Secretary, National Civil Service Reform League, and is a practicing member of the New York Bar. He is assisted in the preparation of this section by IRVING SCHWARTZ, also a member of the New York Bar.

An officer of the commonwealth is generally, if not always, regarded as a public officer, but those who occupy a subordinate position in a municipality, such as policemen, firemen, etc., who are employed and paid by the municipality, do not have a definite term of office, and whose duties are discharged primarily in connection with municipal affairs, even though they are in a sense in the public service, cannot properly be considered as public officers or officers of the commonwealth. Nor are they regarded as public officers within the constitutional provision of article 6 of section 4 P.S. "Where, however, the officer exercises important public duties, and has delegated to him some of the functions of government, and his office is for a fixed term, and the powers, duties and emoluments become vested in a successor when the office becomes vacant, such an official may be properly called a public officer."

**Salary—Power to Fix—Civil Service Commission.** As a general rule, the salaries of local civil service employees may be fixed only by the local legislative body, rather than an administrative agency of the city, such as the civil service commission. A determination as to who has the sole authority to fix salaries involves construction and interpretation of the statutes applicable to the city involved. In *City and County of Denver v. Bigelow*, 155 Pac. 998 (Colo.), the court held that the city civil service commission could not increase the salary of its Secretary above that fixed by ordinance of the City Council. The Civil Service Commission believed the amount set by the City Council for the Secretary of the Commission to be unreasonably low and increased the Secretary's salary. The City Charter specifically provides that salaries of employees are to be fixed by local ordinance. The Commission, however, relied on a statutory provision, dealing with expenses generally, whereas the charter provision specifically mentioned salaries. Under settled principles of statutory interpretation where there is a conflict of statutes a specific provision has been held to control rather than the general one. Here the specific salary provision was passed after the general expense provision had been adopted. It is also settled law that in cases of conflict the later statutory provision prevails. The court quoted the general rule as to salary fixing power as follows:

It may be conceded that where the state legislature has seen fit to determine by lawful act that a municipality shall have a certain designated officer to perform duties specified



in the act, who shall be paid for his services a compensation, which compensation shall be fixed by the legislative body of the town . . . , such legislative body of the town may not effectually provide that there shall be no compensation at all, or practically destroy the office by fixing the compensation at so low a figure that no one will discharge the duties thereof for the compensation fixed. . . . But except for this limitation, the power of the body to whom the fixing of the compensation in such a case is delegated is absolute. It is required to fix a reasonable compensation for the services to be rendered, it is true; but the question what is such a reasonable compensation is addressed solely to it, and not to the courts . . . and, however much a court may disagree with the conclusion of the legislative body that a designated sum is reasonable, it may not interfere.

**Salary Increase—Effective Date—Legislative Intent.** The California Court of Appeal recently had occasion to construe two amendments to the San Francisco City Charter concerning pay increases. The sole issue was the effective date of the increases. The police department increase provided that it "shall become effective when the joint legislative resolution approving such amendment is filed with the Secretary of State, and the Board of Supervisors has appropriated the funds necessary in connection therewith." The fire department increase provided that it "shall become effective when the joint legislative resolution approving such amendment is filed with the Secretary of State, and the increased salaries provided for herein shall be payable only when the proper appropriation has been made to meet said salaries."

The court ruled that in both instances, there were two conditions which had to be fulfilled before the increases became effective: (1) filing the joint resolution with the Secretary of State; and (2) an appropriation by the Board of Supervisors. Even though the language of the two amendments differed somewhat, the court held the meaning in both instances was the same. The police amendment was clear; it was to become "effective" after the two conditions were met, and this appeared in the express language of the amendment itself. But the fire amendment was somewhat confusing. It was to become "effective" when the resolution was filed, but "payable" after an appropriation was made. Did this mean that only payment was postponed, and that, therefore, fire department members were entitled to an increase as of the filing date, albeit such increase was postponed until the appropriation? The court ruled in the negative. "If it had been the intention to start the increased pay rates instantly upon the effective date of the amendment," stated the court, "the amendment would then have read simply: 'This amendment shall become effective when the joint legislative resolution approving such amendment is filed with the Secretary of State.'" (*Callahan v. City and*

*County of San Francisco*, 156 Pac. [2d] 479 [Cal.].)

The court refused to be swayed by extrinsic evidence as to legislative intent for the reason that the legislation here was approved by the electorate. "Where the courts are called upon to construe a statute so enacted," the court said, "the question is as to what the electors understood and intended." Of course the electors here had no way of knowing what discussions had taken place within the chambers of the Board of Supervisors in framing the measures to be submitted to the vote of the electors. Therefore, the statements made before the Board of Supervisors were held to be of no value.

**Salary—Invalid Reduction—Employees' Right to Recover.** Where the salaries of municipal employees had been improperly reduced by an invalid ordinance, it was held that acceptance by the employees of the reduced amounts did not preclude subsequent court action to recover the balance due. Since the city had given recognition to the employees' claims by subsequently authorizing payment of one-half thereof, it was unnecessary for the employees to present the other half of the same claims to the common council for audit. Furthermore, such half payment by the city had the effect of tolling the statute of limitations. (*Detroit Municipal Employees Assn. v. City of Detroit*, 17 N. W. [2d] 858 [Mich.].)

**Salary—Extra Compensation for Police Officers.** In an Illinois case, city police officers were held not entitled to share in any fees resulting from arrests. Their salaries were fixed by appropriation ordinances. The court noted that "The method of paying compensation of public officers is usually fixed by law, and when so fixed, such method is controlling." Therefore, the officers were not entitled to additional compensation. "It is a well-settled rule that a person accepting a public office, with a fixed salary, is bound to perform the duties of the office for the salary. He cannot legally claim additional compensation for the discharge of such duties." (*Anderson v. City of Rockford*, 59 N. E. [2d] 327 [Ill. App.].)

**Examinations—Applications—Arbitrary Administrative Rules.** Invariably, administrative departments are given power to prescribe rules and regulations to aid administration of statutes. It is an established principle that if the rules are unreasonable or arbitrary they will be set aside by the courts at the instigation of an aggrieved party. In *People v. Thompson*, 59 N. E. (2d) 494 (Ill.), a rule of the Illinois Department of Registration and Education barred a German refugee

from taking an examination for license to practice medicine for the reason that he was unable to produce complete transcripts of his medical and premedical records. Despite the fact that he submitted other proof that he satisfied the statutory prerequisites as to education, the State Board insisted on the production of specified transcripts and would consider no other evidence. The court held arbitrary insistence on form, rather than on substance, stating:

For the department to insist upon a regulation, without regard to the circumstances, which is more exacting than the commonly accepted rules of evidence under which courts operate daily, is an arbitrary and unreasonable requirement; and, under present conditions, to insist on original study books and records of German universities accompanied by "legalized translations," is a requirement impossible of fulfillment, tending to establish nothing prescribed by any standard fixed by the act, and therefore unreasonable.

#### **Eligible Lists—Extension—Constitutionality.**

The New York Supreme Court has recently ruled that the state legislature could constitutionally extend the life of teachers' eligible lists, originally promulgated in 1930 and 1932, to 1947. As against the contention that such a lengthy extension contravened the constitutional provision on civil service, because the extension left the lists in existence for an unreasonable length of time, the court replied:

The Court is bound to take judicial notice not only of the war, but of its causative effects, so far as the power of the Legislature to enact the statute is concerned. It is not to be presumed that the Legislature was unaware of the extraordinary demand upon the resources of manpower, the anticipation of a decrease of potential student teachers, together with other factors resulting from the national war effort. It is not to be accepted as a matter of course that the Legislature failed to take account of the practice of using eligibles as regular teachers in the guise of substitute teachers as a primary cause for the continued existence of the old eligible lists. In the light of these circumstances, this Court cannot say, as a matter of law, that the action of the Legislature in extending the lists in 1942, in order to continue the availability of the existing pools of eligibles was unreasonable. In the absence of factual allegations in the complaint to the contrary, or upon the events of which the Court may take judicial notice, the presumption in favor of the constitutionality of the statute cannot be said to have been overcome by the plaintiff.

**Eligible Lists—Expiration—Loss of Right to Appointment.** When an eligible list expires, one who occupied a position thereon loses all rights to appointment which he may have held while on the list. (*Wood v. State Civil Service Commission*, 155 Pac. [2d] 153 [Colo.]) In explaining the practical necessity for limiting the life of eligible lists, the court said:

The mere fact that one takes an examination for a position and attains a preferential position could not well justify his retention in that position indefinitely. Examinations may be stiffened, additional qualifications be required by additional duties being attached to the position, those

examined may deteriorate, others better qualified may knock at the door. Some limitations must of necessity be put upon these lists. Hence the ruling of the commission invalidating lists of eligibles after the lapse of a given time. When the time so limited in the instant case expired on December 19, 1939, Wood's examination of three years previous, and his status attained thereby, went for naught. The entire examination became, as to all those not theretofore appointed, *functus officio*. Hence when Wood made his request for appointment on October 6, 1942, he had no standing whatever before the commission in support of his demand by reason of his former examination for superintendent taken six years before.

The court also observed that the employee in this case could claim no right to appointment as school superintendent by reason of his position on a preferred list, on which he was placed after his prior civil service position had been abolished. Under the applicable rules, it was necessary that the employee's former duties should be the "same" or "similar" to the duties of the position he now claims by virtue of his position on the preferred list. The court maintaining that the complaint and record are barren of any allegation or evidence as to similarity of duties.

**Appointment—Applicants with Equal Rating—Priority in Time of Application.** An interesting and novel question as to the constitutionality of a practical civil service statutory provision was considered by the Ohio Court of Appeals in *Phillips v. Weed*, 60 N. E. (2d) 320 (Ohio). The Ohio Civil Service Law reads, in part: "In the event of two or more applicants receiving the same mark in an examination, priority in the time of application shall determine the order in which their names shall be placed on the eligible list."

The complainant urged that the Ohio Constitution requires appointments to be made according to merit and fitness, and that this statutory provision has no reasonable relation to the fitness of the applicant who happened to have applied first in time. The complainant suggested that in case of a tie—as was the situation here—the effect of the constitutional provision is to require further testing of the two tied applicants.

The court could not find any precedent bearing on the issue. Said the court:

It was our first impression when this case was orally presented that there was no such relation; that the fact that one applicant would file his application earlier than another would afford no assistance whatever in determining his merit and fitness for a position in the classified service. However, upon further and more mature consideration, we believe that there is a definite relation between the provision in the statute and the constitutional requirement. The early filing of an application indicates a quality of aptness, an attitude of promptness and an appreciation of the law relating to the appointment under consideration. All of these qualities relate in a most practical sense to the merit and fitness of an individual to meet the duties of any

position within the classified service and, especially the one immediately under consideration here.

**Appointment—Police Officers—Right of Women to Hold Positions.** A woman may serve as a police officer of a city where the law does not expressly preclude a woman from serving as such officer, and she may, therefore, maintain a proceeding to recover the full compensation fixed for the position. The reference in the statute to appointment of police officers was to the male pronoun "he" wherever reference to the officer was made. The court held the statute to refer to a person, whether male or female, and that use of the pronoun "he" impliedly included "she" as well. In construing the police statute as permitting appointment of females, the court quoted a state interpretive statute: "Whenever, in describing or referring to any person . . . any word importing the . . . masculine gender is used, the same shall be understood to include and to apply to . . . females as well as males . . ." (*Cohen v. City of Asbury Park*, 41 Atl. [2d] 132 [N. J.].)

**Leave of Absence—Maternity Leave—Layoff While on Leave.** The Supreme Court of Minnesota recently emphasized that the prime function of civil service provisions governing maternity leave was to protect the tenure rights of the employee on leave. The court declined to permit the layoff of an employee on maternity leave where, had she remained on duty, her seniority would have entitled her to retain her position. (*State ex rel Coduti v. Hauser*, 17 N. Y. [2d] 504 [Minn.].) The relator, a permanent employee, had taken a maternity leave pursuant to a rule of the city civil service commission permitting such leave for a one-year period. While on leave, many of her fellow employees had been laid off, due to lack of work. The rule provided for layoffs in the order of seniority. When relator reported back to work, she was told that she, too, had been laid off, although there remained on duty at the time at least thirty employees who were junior to her in point of service. The court granted a writ of mandamus ordering reinstatement maintaining that the basic purpose of the leave provision was to protect relators rights, not destroy them. The city placed reliance on a change in the civil service rules, which change was made several months after the relator had reported back for duty. Said the court:

Respondent's theory is abhorrent to reason and violates all the rules of what is termed *justice*. The commissions rules under the charter were intended to establish and maintain civil service as a means of securing stability in public service. . . . Relators rights should be measured by the rules as they were when she was granted her leave.

. . . We think respondents may not, by an ex post facto rule . . . deprive relator of her seniority rights.

**Removal—Evidence—Effect of Acquittal of Criminal Charge.** The removal of a police officer for conduct unbecoming an officer cannot be set aside merely because the officer is acquitted of a criminal charge based on the same facts which led to the removal. Stated the court: "In our opinion the acquittal of the defendant on a burglary charge is no bar to the procedure in the instant case. The parties are not the same, the degree of proof required is not the same. . . . We are in accord with counsel that an acquittal in a criminal case is no bar to a civil action. We have no way of knowing what evidence was introduced in the criminal trial in which this defendant was acquitted, nor have we any way of knowing just why he was acquitted. We do know, however, from this record, that the evidence sustains the verdict of the civil service board." (*Roberson v. City of Rome*, 33 S. E. [2d] 33 [Ga.].)

**Removal—Use of Expert Testimony.** In considering the propriety of a removal of civil service employees it is improper for the court to ask the opinion of expert witnesses as to the fairness of the removal. In *Carter v. City of Los Angeles*, 154 P. (2d) 907 (Cal.), the trial court adopted the rather novel expedient of asking civil service experts, called as witnesses, whether they believed the employees were unfairly treated, and whether accepted principles of civil service procedure had been followed. Said the appellate court, "It is apparent that the court . . . was shifting the responsibility of deciding the issues before the court from its own shoulders to those of the expert witnesses."

The court conceded that there was a question whether the complaining employees had properly obtained a civil service position after examination. But this question "should have been determined by the trial court and not by expert witnesses."

(*Editor's Note.* The general rule is that the facts relating to a dismissal may be the subject of testimony and possibly appraisal by a jury in a proper case, but whether the dismissal was lawfully made is a matter of law for the court to determine. The facts may support a conclusion of bad faith on the part of the removing officer or of other unlawful action. It is the court, nevertheless, that must determine the issues of law involved.)

**Removal—Allegations of Conspiracy—Right to Action Against Superiors.** Real or fancied griev-



ances of discharged civil service employees against their prior superiors occasionally find their way into the law reports by way of civil actions against such superiors for damages caused by loss of the position. Although there is relatively little law on this type of tort claim, it can be stated generally, that the courts are reluctant to hold department heads responsible for conducting removal procedures provided by civil service statutes, no matter how severe the allegations of malice and conspiracy. This was the result reached in *Doyle v. Kammeraad*, 17 N. E. (2d) 165 (Mich.), where the discharged employee alleged that his superiors conspired with another employee to have such employee invent a tale of obscene conduct with the plaintiff in order to find a reason to remove the plaintiff. The court, ignoring the conspiracy charge, held that the removing authorities were performing official duties in the exercise of a governmental function, and so need not respond to a claim in tort. It was felt that plaintiff's rights were fully protected by virtue of the fact that he was entitled to a full administrative hearing of the charges against him, followed of course by judicial review of such hearing.

**Removal—Hearing—Right to Reopen Proceeding.** The reopening of a dismissal proceeding rests in the sound discretion of the civil service commission. The commission was held not to have abused its discretion in refusing to reopen a hearing on the complaint of the employee that the case had been improperly submitted by his attorney on the evidence already taken. In the court's view: "The prosecutor has nothing to complain of save the action of his attorney. He was present, he could have spoken up, but he let the case go on. Confronted by an adverse decision he sought a rehearing. There must be an end of all things." (*Klauss v. Civil Service Commission*, 40 Atl. [2d] 804 [N. J.])

(*Editor's Note.* In some jurisdictions the courts have held that the civil service commission, in the absence of specific statutory authority, may not reconsider the dismissal of an employee.)

**Removal—Police Officers—Intoxication While on Duty.** In *Becker v. Merrill*, 20 So. (2d) 912 (Fla.), which was an action by a city police chief to secure reinstatement to his position, the court stated the issue as follows: "Whether a police chief may be said to be guilty of conduct unbecoming an officer if he has an accident while wearing the insignia of his office, at the time driving a city-owned car and under the influence of intoxicants."

The court observed that "there seem to be few

cases on the subject, and none has been cited where a precise definition (of unbecoming conduct) was undertaken"; and "the term is an elastic one depending upon individual conceptions of what belongs to the office of a policeman." The court summarized its position as follows:

We subscribe to the view that a chief of the police department, in uniform, does not conduct himself in a manner befitting his high position if while under the influence of alcoholic stimulants he is involved in an accident, at the time actually driving a vehicle belonging to the one to whom he owes allegiance, the municipality. Such behavior is not calculated to instill respect for him in his subordinates or to win for himself or his force the confidence of the general public. It is indecorous and unbecoming to his high office. This is our view about the demeanor charged.

The court concluded that there was sufficient evidence to justify the administrative action, so that the removal was not arbitrary.

On rehearing, the court quoted the rule as to the sufficiency of administrative findings on judicial review, thus:

The general rule is that administrative findings, in order to be upheld by the courts, must be supported by substantial evidence. This means that there must be evidence which supports a substantial basis of fact from which the fact in issue can be reasonably inferred. It must do more than create a suspicion of the fact to be established, and must be such relevant evidence as a reasonable mind would accept as adequate to support a conclusion.

**Removal—Veterans—Hearing.** Section 22 of the New York Civil Service Law, which forbids removal of veterans except for incompetency or misconduct shown after a hearing upon stated charges, must be "meticulously" observed in order to justify a removal of a veteran. This was the ruling in *Resler v. Malone*, 52 N. Y. S. (2d) 457, where a removal was set aside as contrary to the requirement of the statute. "Instead of according the petitioner an opportunity to be heard before making his decision," the court stated, "the respondent merely notified the petitioner of his pre-determined decision to terminate the petitioner's services . . . but should petitioner care to make a reply he may have five days to do so."

The respondent served a further notice on petitioner informing him that should the petitioner wish a hearing he could have it "at any time" on August 31 by advising the removing authority thereof. The employee ignored this further notice by failing to notify the respondent of what hour might be suitable to the petitioner. On August 31 the removing official called out at 9:30 that he would then and there hear the proceeding. There was no appearance or response from the petitioner. The respondent called out every hour thereafter until five o'clock. There was no response at any time. It was admitted that

the petitioner was at work on that day, "in an office adjoining that of the (removing officer) and connected therewith by a common door which is kept open." The court observed that "since it is not denied that petitioner was at work that day . . . it seems incredible that the respondent did not call him." The court maintained that the "respondent failed to sustain his burden of showing that he had substantially complied with the provisions of the Civil Service Law. . . ."

**Pensions—Protection in Case of Layoff—Availability to Officers on Expiration of Term.** In *Hecht v. Crook*, 40 Atl. (2d) 673 (Md.), the court considered the effect of a special pension ordinance which, by its terms, applied to those removed from permanent positions, without fault, after having served a specified period of time. The court ruled the provision unavailable to one whose term of office expired, and who failed of reappointment. Such an officer was not "removed from a regular permanent position" within the meaning of the pension ordinance. "The tenure of a public officer appointed for a fixed term is not permanent," the court said, "although the office may be, nor is he removed when his term of office expires. On the other hand, where an office or position is legally abolished, and the incumbent is not retained or transferred, it is generally held that this constitutes a removal."

The court pointed out that the retirement system generally was for the benefit of employees, rather than officers. While the original ordinance permitted officers to become members of the system, the amendment granting protection to those who are laid off through reduction in personnel—which amendment was here in issue—could not have been intended to apply to retirement through expiration of the term of office, for "that is a hazard inherent in public office."

**Pensions—Computation of Time—Service with Armed Forces.** The Supreme Court of California, in *Gibson v. City of San Diego*, 156 Pac. (2d) 733 (Cal.), has liberally construed a San Diego charter provision conferring pension rights on employees who leave for the armed forces. The applicable charter provision reads as follows:

In computing the time of service required for retirement the amount of time served in the United States Army, Navy, Marine Corps or any division thereof in time of war by any member of the Fire Department who shall have left said Department for the purpose of and entered such service of the United States, Army, Navy, Marine Corps or any division thereof immediately thereafter, and who shall have

returned to said Fire Department within three months, after having been honorably discharged from said military service, or any member having served as substitute in the San Diego Fire Department, shall have such time counted as part of the aggregate service required for a retirement pension.

It was urged that in order to be entitled to computation of pension time while a member of the armed forces, the employee must return to civil service duty within three months after honorable discharge. Consequently, it was contended that an employee whose pension time lapsed while he was still with the United States Army acquired no pension rights. He must first be honorably discharged, and then return to civil service duty within three months.

The court rejected this strictly literal construction as too narrow.

In strict literality the mooted provisions of the charter are so ungrammatically stated as to be ambiguous and well-nigh meaningless without judicial construction. Reduced to the essential elements of its syntax the controlling sentence reads: "In computing the time of service required for retirement, the amount of time served in the United States Army . . . shall have such time counted as part of the aggregate service required for a retirement pension." That language is most remarkable in that it fails entirely, read in exact literality, to provide that any person who has served in the Army, Navy, etc., "shall have such time counted" as part of the aggregate required for his pension. If we were to construe and apply the section with such complete literality it would confer no benefit whatsoever on any person for service in the armed forces and would have operated to mislead to his detriment every employee of the City of San Diego who, in reliance upon such section and the construction first placed on it by the city attorney, had entered the military service. We are satisfied that it was not the intention of the drafters of the city charter, or of the citizens who adopted it, to insert a clause which was either meaningless or fraudulent in design.

We are further satisfied that it was the intent and purpose of the citizens of San Diego, in framing and adopting the provisions in question, to encourage city employees to enter the military service during time of war or national emergency, and to protect them in their civil status rights so that they should be wholly relieved by the city from any detriment or penalty in their relationship to it which otherwise would ensue from their patriotic service to the nation. The grammatical ambiguity and the uncertainty of such provisions necessitate our placing a construction upon them and in so doing we are bound by accepted rules of construction to consider the obvious purposes and objects sought to be attained by their adoption and to construe the language used, insofar as it reasonably permits, to the end of giving it vitality and efficacy in the accomplishment of such purposes and objects and fairness of its applications.

Citing the accepted rule that pension provisions are liberally construed, the court held that the phrase "and who shall have returned to said Fire Department within three months, after having been honorably discharged from said military service," is to be construed as applying only to those whose "time of service required for retirement" has not been completed at the time of discharge or release from active duty status.

In another decision by the same court the

pension provisions in the Los Angeles City Charter received an equally liberal construction. In *Dierkes v. City of Los Angeles*, 156 Pac. (2d) 741 (Cal.), the court ruled that pension rights should be extended to a war veteran who, while not "honorably discharged," was placed on inactive status. "We are satisfied," said the court, "that the words 'honorably discharged from such service' must be construed to mean, in a proper case, honorably *relieved, released, transferred, or retired from active duty status.*" The court pointed to another charter provision in support of this construction, a provision conferring credit for "military leave" and using such terms as "active service" and "discharge or release," indicating that the narrow concept of "honorably discharge" was not the sole concern of the legislators.

(*Editor's Note.* This same broad construction of the type of severance from army service admissible in these pension cases was also made by the court in the *Gibson*, case, *supra*.)

**Pensions—Forfeiture—Disreputable Conduct While a "Beneficiary."** The rules of the Board of Trustees of the Police Relief Fund of the City of East Liverpool, Ohio, provide for the forfeiture of all claims on the fund by any retired police officer who, "while a beneficiary" of the fund, is guilty of disreputable conduct. In *State v. Brookes*, 60 N. E. (2d) 62 (Ohio), a police officer was honorably retired in 1939, but it was not until 1943 that he recovered a judgment ordering him placed on the pension rolls, as of 1939. The court ruled that he was a "beneficiary" as of 1939, so that if he was guilty of disreputable conduct between 1939 and 1943 he would forfeit his rights to the fund. Stated the court:

The term "beneficiary" is not limited to one in possession of the benefit. It comprehends one who is named as the person to whom a benefit will accrue at a certain time or upon certain contingencies, and especially one who, upon the accrual of such time or such contingencies, has become entitled to the benefit.

The case was remanded to the trial court to ascertain whether he was in fact guilty of dis-

reputable conduct and thus properly penalized.

**Pensions—Revocation—Use of Hearsay Evidence.** An application to set aside an order involving a fire department employee's pension was granted on the ground that the revocation order affected a "vested property right," so that a revocation on the basis of hearsay evidence, without giving the pensioner any hearing or opportunity to present evidence, was invalid. Revocation of a pension "could be accomplished only by procedure which would insure the petitioner full protection of her legal rights." (*Curtin v. Dorman*, 53 N. Y. S. [2d] 562.)

**Pensions—Total Disability—Ailments Acquired after Retirement.** Under the pension by-laws of the Minneapolis Fire Department Relief Association, promulgated pursuant to state statute, which by-laws provide different classes of pensions for varying degrees of disability, the disability referred to is that which existed during the actual service of the pensioner, and not that which may subsequently occur during his period of retirement. (*Stevens v. Minneapolis Fire Dept. Relief Association*, 17 N. W. [2d] 642 [Minn.].) The court denied the claim of a pensioner, retired by virtue of a partial disability, to receive a pension for total disability. While it was true that he was totally disabled, this was "based not upon his original disability, but upon increased disability occurring subsequent to his retirement as a fireman." (He was retired because of rheumatism; he subsequently acquired arthritis and other ailments.)

With respect to plaintiff's claim that for a period of years he was receiving a third-class pension when he should have been receiving a second-class pension, the court pointed out that plaintiff regularly accepted third-class pension checks which recited that they were in full payment of the amount due the plaintiff. Observed the court: "The checks were in such form that, when endorsed, they constituted receipts in full for the pension due him each month."



## BOOK REVIEWS

**Representative Bureaucracy.** J. Donald Kingsley.  
The Antioch Press, Yellow Springs, Ohio. 1944.  
305p. \$3.50.

The British civil service has always been an important focus of attention for students of comparative government. In the last decade as the newer emphasis on public administration has brought greater vigor and reality into the study of government, deeper surveys into various aspects of the British public service have been made by American investigators. We have the books by White, Stout, and Walker, and numerous specialized articles and reports by other Americans. This volume of research when added to the works of Finer, Robson, Mustoe, and other Britishers, plus the voluminous reports and testimony of British Royal Commissions and Committees which have dealt with the British civil service, provides a wealth of opinion and documentation.

Professor Kingsley in this volume has "set the high points of service evolution in their proper perspective against the broad historical background of which they are a part." He has been interested less, as he puts it, "in minute chronicling than in the quest for relationships and meanings." He has therefore not undertaken a systematic history of the British civil service. What he has done is to explain how the development of the civil service has reflected the spirit of the times.

In the five historical chapters which compose over one-third of the book, Dr. Kingsley has presented an excellent picture of how competence succeeded patronage in the British public service. In this penetrating historical review he explains how the original civil servants really constituted "the outdoor relief department of the aristocracy," and how in the late nineteenth century they became the representatives of a middle-class state. Continuing down to the present he shows that in the war and postwar years "there was a fundamental instability in the prevailing power pattern and that this lack of equilibrium was likewise reflected in the civil service."

In an interesting chapter entitled "Backwaters of Patronage," which follows the historical chapters, the author makes "an excursion into less-travelled channels." Here he explains how there is almost no interference with the exercise of patronage by the Lord Chancellor, while none of

the legal officers of the state are selected by open competition. Nothing has been done to apply to any of the establishments under the Lord Chancellor's control the provision of orders regulating the public service. Similarly with regard to the legal staffs attached to other departments of the government, the heads of these legal departments are empowered to recruit qualified persons without examination. Of these practices Kingsley makes this pertinent comment: "It does not seem to be an indispensable accompaniment of good administration that the power of selecting lawyers should rest invariably in the hands of lawyers, however much that principle may appeal to certain members of the legal fraternity." The Foreign Office too, although no longer predominantly aristocratic remains, in the author's opinion, predominantly plutocratic "and in England it has long been difficult to distinguish between the two." Another patronage survival is pointed out in connection with the posts at the Palace advising the King.

In Part II the author deals analytically and critically with the operation of the British civil service in our own time. Here he comes to grips with the numerous problems of a bureaucracy in the modern state. After explaining the existing articulation between the educational system and the civil service, Dr. Kingsley stresses the danger to the state in continuing to draw from a narrow circle the members of the important administrative class, and the unsatisfactoriness of limiting so strictly the promotional opportunities from one class to another. He also emphasizes the inability of the British civil service "to solve the problems presented by the emergence of the specialist and the growing impact of technical considerations upon policy." The expert, he says, is a sort of step-child occupying a subordinate position in the social hierarchy. The discrimination against women in the British service also receives effective criticism from the author. The democratic state, he avers, cannot afford to exclude any considerable body of its citizens from full participation in its affairs. "In a democracy," he writes, "competence is not enough. The public service must also be representative if the state is to liberate rather than to enslave."

Coming to the administration of the personnel function, Dr. Kingsley explains the organization of the Treasury for personnel work, and also the

functioning of the Civil Service Commission. He presents well-founded criticisms of the old-fashioned examining techniques which are still employed by the Commission. More fundamental are his conclusions that the Treasury has not satisfactorily handled many of the important personnel functions, and, because of its preoccupation with the short-run financial aspects, has not promoted the best staff relationships.

Dr. Kingsley is careful to point out that the British civil service has been both competent and representative of the ruling middle class. He feels, however, that the essence of bureaucratic responsibility in the modern state is to be sought "not in the presumed and largely fictitious impartiality of the officials, but in the strength of their commitment to the purposes that state is undertaking to serve." And he states flatly that the present civil service could not be as representative of a state in which the Labour party wielded power. Nor has it met the new situation of the planning state. In administering the war, the service "has exhibited a lack of dash, an unimaginative timidity, an entrenched routineism, which might have proved fatal to a people less resilient and less adroit at improvisation than the British have been as a whole."

These failures, he argues, are not inherent in bureaucracies; they are rather the defects of a class. Civil servants were immersed in the ideologies of their class and behaved accordingly. A new England, he thinks, will therefore require a new civil service with a broader democratic base and in which the problem is control of the economy. Men will be needed who are committed to the purposes the state is undertaking to serve—"practical men who know how to do a particular job, rather than political philosophers or Latin scholars." These changes together with a new emphasis upon the recruitment of expertise, the development of new schemes of in-service training, transfer, and promotion, as well as fundamental changes in the methods of Treasury control, are required in the new bureaucracy.

This well written book, with its keen insight and sound judgment, deserves a careful reading by every student of comparative government. It illuminates so many of the intricacies of the modern state. It directs attention to so many of the focal points of control in the administration of human affairs, and it enriches our knowledge and perspective of broad administrative problems in an experienced democracy.

JAMES K. POLLOCK

Professor of Political Science  
University of Michigan

#### Handling Personality Adjustment in Industry.

Robert N. McMurry. Harper & Brothers. New York. 1944. 297p. \$3.00.

The handling of human relations in modern industry does not present a particularly pretty picture. When we are brutally honest, we cannot look upon industrial practice in this field and say truthfully that it is good. In far too many instances layoffs, strikes, poor supervision, arbitrary policies, inadequate wages, absenteeism, etc. are the usual thing, rather than the exception. Mr. McMurry, who is a professional psychologist with extensive experience dealing with industrial situations, as well as a zealous psychoanalytic bias, believes he has some insights that will prove helpful to administrators and executives.

The problems of labor unrest and employee dissatisfaction, he feels, arise from many sources, such as poorly articulated and organized company policies, maladjusted top executives, inadequately trained supervision, and the totalitarian or authoritarian nature of industrial enterprise. More important, however, for industry's consideration is the basic factor of the personality organization and adjustment of the people who fill the various roles of workers and management. Labor and management, he points out, strike alarming poses of defensiveness and aggression; and, if executives are to understand as well as resolve these conflicts, it is necessary for them to examine the internal personality traits which shape and determine the expectations, demands, and actions of human beings at large.

Why do people join unions, for example? Mr. McMurry suggests that we may consider the primary motivation as a desire to exercise punitive action against authoritarian management. Although legitimate functions are admittedly performed by union organizations, they are apparently incidental to this punitive function which allows people, individually and collectively, the opportunity to release the painful tensions of general personal frustration and of hostility to authority. These tensions, we are told, arise not alone from within the industrial situation, but, in many instances, have their roots far back in the individual's life history.

A number of specific recommendations for the improvement of the over-all work situation are listed, with particular emphasis placed on a technique for learning employee attitudes by the use of an elaborate schedule or polling questionnaire, which is described in full. It is assumed that knowledge thus acquired accurately reflects the sentiments and attitudes of the working organization, and that thereupon may be based

many wise and rational administrative practices.

In the most intelligent and skillfully manipulated industrial organization, however, Mr. McMurry cautions that we must face the stark reality and realize that we are bound to find the "problem employee." This ubiquitous individual is the author's main concern, and of the two hundred and ninety pages of text two hundred and twenty-four are devoted in some fashion to the discussion of why we have him with us and suggestions as to what industry may do about him.

Here Mr. McMurry's psychoanalytic bias becomes most apparent. Although he does not belabor the dynamics and dynamisms of Freudian psychology, he presents his conception of personality in the terms of the "pleasure principle," the "reality principle," "repression," "reaction-formation," etc. The extent of what he refers to as "vocational deficiency" and "emotional maladjustment" is seldom recognized by the executive in industry; and, if he would set his house in order, he must become aware of the "major patterns of personality maladjustment," (p. 77) which contribute to the high incidence of job failure and employee dissatisfaction.

It seems clear to Mr. McMurry that many of industry's trials and tribulations in the area of human relations may be eliminated or significantly minimized by programs of "scientific selection" and placement. To this end, he sets forth in detail his conception of "scientific selection" procedures and explains with care the means of introducing and administering them in the industrial situation. A planned or standardized interview form, designed by the author and A. W. Kornhauser to secure the essential information suggestive of the interviewee's basic personality pattern, is presented and analyzed in relation to other techniques, such as testing, that might be employed.

Industry's experience with well integrated and "properly" administered selection procedures of the type recommended by Mr. McMurry is too briefly and superficially reported. Although the evidence submitted indicates that such industrial phenomena as absenteeism and turnover have been curtailed or brought under control through the use of these procedures, we are not told what other factors may or may not have remained constant.

Although *Handling Personality Adjustment in Industry* is a book that merits careful reading and analysis, it is the reviewer's feeling that it cannot be accepted whole-cloth. Generalizations are numerous and daring, if not in many cases highly questionable. Experiences of other indus-

trial researchers, for example, indicate that the whole problem of union organization and the function it serves for the individual employee is considerably more complex than Mr. McMurry appears to assume it to be. (Cf. "Who Goes Union and Why," by William F. Whyte, *Personnel Journal*, December, 1944.) That basic personality patterns are important in the consideration of human relations in industry cannot be denied, but the evidence produced by industrial research, as well as by broad-gauge social investigation, points to the fact that we cannot look exclusively to individual psychology or abnormal psychology for adequate understanding of social behavior. To regard either the individual or society as separate and distinct leads to partial knowledge, and any study of human behavior that is based primarily upon the dynamics of Freudian psychology may be indicted on the ground that it presents only part of the picture.

In a chapter on "Dealing with Labor Trouble," several methods for securing employee attitudes are briefly described. Among them a program conducted by Western Electric Company is mentioned. This reference was neither wisely chosen nor adequately verified. Unfortunately, only one of Mr. McMurry's statements in this connection approaches accuracy: "Indications are frequently obtained of factors outside of the work situation which may be causing trouble" (p. 39). However, the personnel counselors who hear such indications in no way relay them to management or endeavor to advise the interviewee.

The reader who agrees with the sentiments of the reviewer regarding the place and usefulness of tests will be pleased with Mr. McMurry's consideration of this technique. Since his background has been largely in the area of testing, he convincingly relates from his experience the limitations and dangers in a reckless reliance upon tests. The manner in which he integrates his "standardized interview" with testing procedures should be suggestive and helpful to anyone interested in methods of selection and placement.

F. C. TOOMBS

Committee on Human Relations in Industry  
University of Chicago.

**Employee Counseling.** Nathaniel Cantor.  
McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. New York.  
1945. 157p. \$2.

Principles of interviewing, psychiatric case work, and supervision in industry, as well as psychological theory, are demonstrated in this book. The author, a sociologist and anthropologist, has taught industrial psychology to foremen



and supervisors in war industries and is recognized for his studies in the field of human relations. He proposes in this book to describe what he considers a new approach in dealing with human problems in industry. In setting forth those problems information from the field of clinical psychology has been drawn on. The study confines itself to one field of industrial relations—employee counseling.

An effort is made to examine these questions about employee counseling programs in industry: What are the guiding purposes of the various programs? What are the functions of counselors? What qualifications and training do they have? What methods are employed in carrying out their functions? The study aims to propose a program that will more effectively deal with the problems of human relations in the factory.

It is not clear that such a program is outlined. What is more important is that the author accomplishes his stated purpose, which is to give increased insight into the nature of human relations in industry. Ideas are so simply demonstrated that the understanding of a most casual reader would be increased.

The gap between the high efficiency in technological development and the relative lack of understanding of the efficiency of the worker is explored. In explaining this gap, the need for understanding why people behave the way they do is effectively emphasized. As an approach to this form of understanding several easily phrased policies for working satisfactorily with employees are suggested: Attitudes of people are important. Feelings are to be recognized for what they are, and they are not to be argued about. Employees wish to feel they are wanted and that they have a voice in what they are doing. The fact that employees "are human beings and not time cards or buttons or numbers" must be continuously recognized. Management and employees need appreciation of problems confronting each other.

In a brief history of the development of counseling programs it is pointed out that, although a few programs existed before the impact of the war, their functions had not been clearly defined. Employees' difficulties, always existing, were accentuated and multiplied by accelerated demands of war industries. There was a faint recognition that morale and effectiveness were related to personal attitudes of workers, and so several industries sought to establish some kind of personal contact between management and employees. Not fully understanding the nature of employee relations, management did not know what the duties of counselors should be. Consequently no

agreement on the qualifications of counselors was found.

A brief resumé of the nature of the counseling program in each of twenty-nine leading corporations is presented, and the author's own experience in surveying the counselor service in a large firm, which he calls the Alpha Corporation, is described. From this experience he isolated two types of services: those which assist management in detailed and specific services to the employee, and those which help the employee to adjust to his job. Without discounting the necessity of the former, he shows that the latter is the new relationship which is important.

In a chapter devoted to the psychology of adjustment, the author examines the question, "What is the normal mind?" and explores the concept of ambivalence and the theory of psychological conflict. The author believes that there is agreement among reputable psychiatrists and psychologists that all individuals want and need to express themselves, that they want and need to feel secure, and that they must learn to face reality and adjust themselves to authority. The discussion is illustrated by many familiar situations which make the theory easily comprehensible. It shows the difficulties encountered as people seek satisfaction of their basic psychological needs. Of special interest to an executive, personnel officer, or counselor is the statement that if he approaches his job in a spirit based on an analysis of these needs "he will discover that much of his own behavior represents a working out of his own needs through exploiting the people around him."

The functions of the employee counselor (also called consultant) are clearly stated in terms of psychological needs. "The consultant has one job only: to help the employee find the solution to his own emotional problem in his own way and at his own tempo." What he should not do is also clearly stated. The technique used in performing his functions is the interview. Common elements which should be found in the interview method are listed, and a number of interviews are reported verbatim as samples of how a consultant can work effectively with employees. The passive technique in interviewing is evident in all of them.

A chapter called "Knowledge and Skill in Counseling" is composed almost entirely of case records. These are preceded by some cogent rules of procedure. Wise words of the book are those in which the author calls attention to what he optimistically says is an "obvious fact": that one learns about other people only through first learning about one's self.



The appropriate qualifications of a consultant staff, its place in the organization, and its relation to supervision, unions, and management are merely touched upon. In the discussion of qualifications of counselors a marked inaccuracy is found. The author refers to the origin and content of Departmental Circular No. 356 issued by the United States Civil Service Commission to federal departments and agencies on July 10, 1942. He says that qualifications were set up at the request of the agencies and that at least a college training with specialization in certain subjects was required. The fact is that personnel standards for a varied group of positions were established, at the initiation of the Commission, as guides to the agencies in setting up new positions. There is no requirement of college training. The circular states, "In general, it is desirable that incumbents in counseling positions have four years of college study . . ." No reference is made to specific courses.

The concept of counseling presented in this study deserves serious consideration. There is a grave question as to the wisdom of developing it in industry and government except under the guidance of a psychiatrist, and where consultants fully trained to function as clinicians are available. If many employees need the high skill necessary for such diagnostic and therapeutic service, a plant might better look to its recruiting and dismissal standards. Management, supervisors, and personnel officers can be taught skills in dealing with human relations problems. Some, also, can teach those skills. Good management will prevent situations which interfere with production and good morale of workers, and it will be interested in developing programs beneficial to all workers.

The incomplete treatment given to the management aspects of counseling programs in this book does not, however, reduce its value as an aid in understanding why people in industry behave the way they do. The book includes a selected bibliography on employee counseling.

ELIZABETH COSGROVE

United States Civil Service Commission  
Washington, D. C.

**Counseling in Personnel Work, 1940-1944: A Bibliography.** Paul S. Burnham. Public Administration Service. 1313 East 60th Street, Chicago 37, Illinois. 1944. 38p. \$1.00.

This bibliography of publications on personnel counseling very satisfactorily meets a need that has been felt by many counselors for some time. This is particularly true in the employee coun-

seling field, where the increase in employee unrest during the war years has resulted in counseling becoming an important phase of personnel work, both in industry and in many public establishments.

Unfortunately, counseling programs have sometimes been planned by executives with too little knowledge of professional methods and too little appreciation of the value of professional training. The result has been that many people have gone into the work with a sincere desire to do an intelligent job, but without a background of appropriate training. Although a good deal has been written on the subject of counseling which would be helpful to these newcomers in the field, much of it is in pamphlet or magazine article form. A bibliography, such as Mr. Burnham's, will be of great value to these untrained workers, as well as to the trained worker.

Mr. Burnham has divided his material into the natural groupings of various types of counseling: employee, occupational, student, rehabilitation, and veteran. This grouping facilitates the search for material applicable to one's need. Accompanying each entry is a descriptive sentence which is particularly helpful in judging the utility and significance of the items listed. Complete details on publishers, dates, prices, and page numbers are included, and there is an index of authors and of publishers.

This bibliography will satisfy adequately the reference requirements of counselors in various fields.

EDITH N. COIT

Philadelphia Quartermaster Depot  
Army Service Forces, War Department

**Job Safety Training Manual.** Kenneth L. Faist and Stanton M. Newkirk. National Foremen's Institute, Inc. Deep River, Connecticut. 1945. 52p. \$5.00.

The authors are to be highly commended for a critically needed, well thought out, and exceptionally well compiled safety training program. The entire manual and its supplements are right to the point, so practical that anyone can follow them, and so complete they are sure to get results with even a little leadership. It is a manual that every personnel director and every supervisor interested in employee safety should have and make good use of. As pointed out by the authors, safety training is urgently needed in all industry, and, it can be added, in the public service as well. A few cities and counties in the country have seen fit to adopt safety and accident prevention programs with a considerable degree of success.

In fact personnel directors and city managers in larger cities can more than earn their salaries by carrying on a continuous safety and accident prevention program. One city received, as a result of a good program, \$90,000 in insurance dividends and reduced rates in three years. Safety does pay.

Attention is directed by the manual to the value of safety training from the human and economic standpoints, as well as from the points of view of good public relations, good citizenship, good management, and good government. Then, too, it builds morale by creating an added interest among employees on the job, as well as off the job. Safety programs require the close cooperation of all concerned, and, as the authors say, "In a world full of death and destruction, safety stands for the sort of constructive, cooperative thinking, and living which is our only hope for the future."

The practical approach to the safety training problem by the authors is the only sound approach. As is stated, a job well done is a job safely done. How often employees are injured by reason of some simple oversight? The responsibility for safe performance on the job rests with the supervisors of any organization. Therefore, safety must start from the top executive, and the safety program and safety training will succeed only as his leadership and interest filter down through the supervisors to the employees. The many ways of creating interest and holding interest in a program are very well worked out by the authors, and the selection of good methods of stimulating cooperation is imperative to a well organized and conducted safety program.

From observation, particularly in the public service, little or no interest has been shown in the matter of employee safety on the job, and where some interest has been shown, too few know how to approach the problem. The *Job Safety Training Manual* gives the answers in a training course requiring five sessions and allowing for continuous follow-up sessions as a part of a safety and accident prevention program. The job analysis section is most important, and, beyond the safety feature, it helps stimulate a new interest on the job itself. Too often supervisors and employees

fall into a set routine without giving any thought to improvement in production or the hazards involved. So, following the job analysis, the next step is to spot the sources of danger—the places where injuries could occur and the manner in which they might occur. When the hazards are located, the next step is to plan the necessary changes in operating methods or equipment safeguards, and to take action to make the indicated corrections. The methods and procedure for training supervisors outlined in the manual appear practical, logical, complete, and are well deserving of recommendation.

RICHARD H. SMITH

City Manager  
Ventura, California

### BOOK NOTES

**How to Establish and Maintain a Personnel Department.** Research Report No. 4. American Management Association. 330 West 42nd Street, New York 18, New York. 1944. 114p. \$1.50.

Inasmuch as management generally has been convinced in recent years of the advantages that can be gained from a planned program of personnel activities, there has been a definite need for a short, simple, concise guide which would offer suggestions concerning the best procedures to follow in planning and installing such a program. This AMA Research Report fills the need. The procedures outlined are of necessity, because of space limitations, neither detailed nor specific; they do, however, encompass the essential points of a comprehensive personnel program in such a way that they may be adapted to the needs of any organization. An annotated bibliography and footnotes scattered throughout the text indicate sources of reference material for more detailed discussion of specific problems of personnel method. Among the sections containing suggestions of particular value to public personnel administrators are those on personnel research, health and safety programs, and designing and evaluating personnel records. The entire booklet will be a practical reference for new personnel agencies in government as well as in private industry.

# ARTICLE ABSTRACTS

## PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION— WARTIME ASPECTS

48. Farmer, Charles. The task of the United States Employment Service in the post-war adjustment period. *Personnel Administration* 7 (5) January, 1945: 1-5.—After the war, one of the chief problems facing the country will be that of providing suitable peacetime employment for the mustered-out military personnel. It is assumed that the United States Employment Service will carry a large share of the responsibility for staffing peacetime establishments. With a chain of more than 1500 offices throughout the country, the USES will be the best source of available workers of all types. If the proposed expansion of the Social Security Program is accomplished it will mean that between 55 and 60 million workers will be covered. Since no one is eligible for unemployment compensation until he has registered with the USES, the result will be that most of these workers will at some time or other have their work experience, educational background, and capabilities for various types of employment recorded in local employment offices. This information then becomes available to employers needing workers. The main objectives of the USES will be: (1) to provide fully effective employment service facilities such as recording work abilities of applicants, placement, counseling, and employment information to communities; (2) to facilitate prompt reemployment of demobilized veterans and former war workers; (3) to facilitate the transfer of workers from labor surplus to labor shortage areas; (4) to provide statistics on employment opportunity and labor supply for use in planning. In general each office will provide the following services: reception and registration of applicants, in which each person's employment background will be recorded; selection and placement of workers; technical assistance to industry by making training and recruitment techniques available; employment information and counseling; labor clearance from surplus to shortage areas; and special aids to veterans and handicapped. It is believed that this nation-wide public employment system will carry the load in getting the country's workers into peacetime jobs.—*Irving Gold.*

49. Fredenburgh, Franz A. Reconversion of personnel. *Personnel Journal* 23 (7) January, 1945: 242-53.—Transition from a war to a peacetime economy highlights for the personnel counselor the problems inherent in the necessity of absorbing veterans into industry, in the recession of industrial output to a peacetime level, and in a labor market glutted with able and willing workers competing with one another for the available jobs. The physical problem of restoring peacetime production is far less difficult than the more immediate one of the fate of 8 million workers—

some 15 per cent of the total civilian working force—who are currently employed in war industries. In order to avoid widespread unemployment, an industrial expansion sufficient to create 7 to 10 million jobs over the number existing in 1940 will be necessary. Organizing for intelligent postwar planning of manpower requirements implies that certain steps be undertaken. These steps are: a personnel inventory or audit of present incumbents; adequate job analysis, description, and classification; refined selection techniques to measure skills, aptitudes, and interests for the purpose of matching the man and the job; orientation of the new employee; follow-up on the job; and personnel counselling during encumbency. (Bibliography attached.)—*William B. Davis.*

50. Wolf, Robert E. A veteran looks at rehabilitation. *Mental Hygiene* 19 (1) January, 1945: 45-60.—In so far as men are subject to the same environmental pressures, they react similarly, although that reaction may be positive or negative depending upon the native personality material brought to the situation. In preparing to help the discharged soldier, social agencies must understand the common ground that underlies the heterogeneous group constituting our present army population. Pre-induction concerns and attitudes, the "shock of separation," the rapid subordination of personal will to that of the group leader, the glorification of the past, and the repression of normal aggression and hostility may all be attributable to the immaturity of the American soldier which prevents his using maximum personal capabilities to adjust to a changed situation. This immaturity probably stems from an American educational deficiency which has allowed to exist a lack of understanding of the how and why of war. Military life provides both a higher threshold of success and a lower threshold of resistance to psychic breakdown than does civilian life; and because limitation of time and staff prevent the sublimation of hatred of the military situation into desire for triumph over the difficulties, a resistance to therapy has been encountered. All these factors create problems of readjustment for the discharged soldier. Moreover, the immediate loss upon discharge of the prestige, the special privileges to which the uniform entitles one, the relative security of anonymity, and the official tolerance of occasional "cutting-loose" brings its own special trauma. Rehabilitation is an infinitely more complex problem than vocational guidance. The primary task is to treat the whole individual, to restore him or promote him to adult self-sufficiency—a task doubly more difficult than civilian social work because of the complex, deep-lying, and often traumatic blockings of mature expression. Therapy must begin before discharge—communities must be educated, families and employers prepared. Communities and veterans' organizations particularly must be convinced that the



primary need is for treatment rather than compensation. Servicemen want help in solving their adjustment problems, a small but sufficient sum to tide them over until they are self-supporting, the opportunity to finish interrupted education, and the chance to work constructively in an economy that will bring about a better world than that which blighted their childhood. Psychiatrists and social workers must campaign energetically for social education for the next generation.—*Mildred I. Fahlen.*

### PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION— GENERAL ASPECTS

51. Emmerich, Herbert. **Some notes on wartime federal administration.** *Public Administration Review* 5 (1) Winter, 1945: 55-61.—There are six groups of problems of public administration arising from the civilian conduct of the war which require identification for further study. (1) *Problems of Staffing.* Lack of strong operating career administrators who can be placed in new agencies and who have government know-how to supplement industry know-how and whose experience is flexible and convertible to new problems is still a serious weakness of the civil service. The career service must redouble its efforts to identify, train, and promote young people of marked administrative aptitude in operating line positions. Government salaries in the executive and administrative brackets are entirely too low to attract and retain people of high caliber. The time may have come for decentralization to departments of much of our civil service work. (2) *Problems of Consolidation.* Studies are needed to see why there is insistent pressure for endless agencies and departments outside of cabinet posts. Consolidation of agencies concerned with labor problems, international activities, procurement, lending, works, and housing are ripe for study. (3) *Problems of Liaison.* Should a liaison officer take an uncompromising view of his mission from the standpoint of his own agency? Should he always go along no matter what is at stake? Does the liaison officer have access to high officials in his own agency? What can we learn from military administration? (4) *Problems of Function versus Area.* How much can be delegated to the regions? A more considerate handling of concentric programs—production, manpower, price, rationing, wages, works, housing, and plant construction—from the standpoint of the localities is essential. (5) *Problems of Coordination.* Everybody wants coordination on paper. Nobody wants to be coordinated in practice. In times of emergency, coordination is more important on jurisdictional and policy questions than in detailed operations. The question is raised as to whether it is not better to coordinate operations at the ultimate field level rather than to try to coordinate them from above. (6) *Problems of Continuous Reorganization.* Should emergency functions be placed in regular departments or put into one big emergency agency? Under which will they be more responsive to emergency needs and more likely to be liquidated when the needs are past? In wartime it is necessary to create, change, and shift agencies with changing conditions more speedily than

it is possible to achieve through legislation. Therefore, the chief executive must have authority to establish and reorganize agencies. Although often burdensome, the continuous post-audit by Congress and its committees of the war program has been a corrective check on mistakes of administration and an aid in interpreting new programs to the public. In spite of the shortcomings in method, the results that have been accomplished by wartime federal administration will go down in history as the greatest job in public administration, civilian and military, on record.—*Michael Levine.*

52. White, Leonard D. **Congressional control of the public service.** *The American Political Science Review* 39 (1) February, 1945: 1-11.—Congressional control of the administrative system is democratically essential and technically feasible. At the present time, however, the forms of control are over details not essentials, negative and repressive rather than positive and constructive, and reflect fear rather than confidence. If there is to be effective and intelligent control over the public service, certain basic reforms in the organization of Congress must be assumed: (1) that the majority party will assert more effective power; (2) that congressional committees will be reduced in number and made responsible to each House; and (3) that the seniority rule will be abolished. The first essential objective of congressional control is to ensure that the mandates laid down by Congress on public policy prevail. Genuine control of policy can be assured by requiring that administrative rules be submitted to legislative review and veto, by cultivating policy conferences among Congressional members and top executive officials in the most important and most controversial areas of action, and by enacting laws which are neither vague nor ambiguous. The second major objective of congressional control is to ensure that public policy is executed efficiently, without waste, and without undue public inconvenience. Congress can make a great contribution toward guaranteeing high standards of administrative performance by building up the administrative system and by depending largely on its internal controls. A reformed committee system would continue the functions of consultation, criticism, and occasional investigation; but as committees become more powerful, they need to be on guard lest they take over in fact some of the responsibilities of administration. The greatest single change which Congress might make in fostering sound administration is a transformed General Accounting Office, restricted to an audit but strengthened to become an office of administrative intelligence acting on behalf of the two Houses.—*Jean Charters Graham.*

53. Truman, David B. **Public opinion research as a tool of public administration.** *Public Administration Review* 5 (1) Winter, 1945: 62-72.—Opinions are facts. Whether held throughout the body politic or insistently advanced by a militant minority, they are realities of the political process that should not be ignored by administrators and students of administration. Many



major administrative policies emerge from a welter of partial, approximate data. This "ear to the ground" method, however, does not meet the need for exact data on the frequencies and intensities of attitudes and opinions which may be coordinated into an undistorted total picture. New methods for the identification and measurement of public opinions and attitudes have become highly significant tools during the last decade. Four types of contribution which public opinion research can make to the solution of problems facing the operating administrator are: (1) testing hypotheses arrived at by less systematic methods and providing data upon which the hypotheses and plans can be based, (2) testing plans for a projected program, (3) evaluating the effectiveness of a going program, and (4) facilitating the informational aspects of an operating policy. If the possibilities of public opinion research as a tool of the operating administrator have been only partially realized, its potential contributions to the work of those studying and systematizing administration and those engaged in remodeling existing organizations have been virtually untouched. Opinion research is a new and potentially very useful tool, which should be examined and used to its fullest extent by public administrators.—*Charles F. Ream.*

#### PERSONNEL AGENCY MANAGEMENT

54. Atkinson, Kenneth B. A personnel man looks at his job. *Personnel Administration* 7 (5) January, 1945: 6-10.—Sooner or later the personnel man comes to the conclusion that his is a hopeless task. He not only seems to be, but generally is, misunderstood. Operating people are uncertain as to what he is trying to do and he is not too sure himself. Rarely has he thought his job through in terms of what he is trying to accomplish, how successful he can expect to be, and how he should proceed. Personnel management may best be defined as the creation and maintenance of an effective working force. In other words, it is getting effective manpower. This task really belongs to supervisors. The personnel man has the definite responsibility for influencing supervisors in such a way that they build an effective working force. There are several ways of influencing supervision. There is the negative or regulatory approach; but, while minimum controls are necessary, this approach aims merely at correcting weaknesses. There is the "direct mail" approach, which places great faith in the printed word but frequently misses the mark. A third way of influencing supervisors is to provide formal training. If developed to the point of providing instruction in the whole field of personnel administration, it can be effective in influencing supervisors to do their jobs well. A further approach has a missionary aspect. Representatives of the personnel office are missionaries when they point out to supervisors how employees can be better utilized, how to set up jobs better, how to handle people so as to make them happier, and how to train employees to be more effective. A fifth approach, usually overlooked, is careful selection of supervisors who have already demonstrated their ability to supervise people.

No one approach provides the answer to the personnel man's objective. It may well be asked: what about placement, classification, employee relations, and transactions? Do not these responsibilities have a place in the personnel man's field? Obviously they are personnel activities, but not the ultimate goal. They are merely means to an end. If personnel management is management of people, the personnel man can best accomplish his job by working with supervisors and showing them how to create and maintain an effective working force.—*Bradford G. White.*

55. Beers, Fred S. and Brolyer, Cecil R. Major strategy versus minor tactics in merit administration. *Educational and Psychological Measurement* 4 (2) Summer, 1944: 97-108.—Statutes alone cannot make merit systems; practice must keep step with legal precept if public acceptance is to be sufficiently durable to make laws effective. Eventually a truly scientific system of personnel selection may develop. Meanwhile, we must consider available alternatives. Among these the merit system seems best, although its imperfect techniques can be much improved. The following basic principles are generally accepted as fundamental to merit system administration: (1) selection by open competition; (2) selection of the most competent available personnel by practical, scientific methods; (3) equal pay for equal work; (4) a career service conditioned upon meritorious performance; (5) right of appeal from all personnel actions. While accepted in theory these principles are often violated in practice or at least are not given full effect. The divergence between principle and practice is exemplified by: (1) rigid education and experience requirements; (2) veterans' preference credit; (3) residence requirements; (4) subordination of qualification requirements to the interests of professional and vocational groups; (5) failure to evaluate experience and education qualitatively; (6) failure to make full use of scientific measuring processes and the oral interview; (7) unloading unsatisfactory employees on someone else by transfer or advancement; (8) holding down competent employees for reasons of convenience; (9) inelasticity in organization structure; (10) lack of scientific pay scale determination; (11) circumvention of classification and pay plans by operating administrators; (12) exclusive use of promotion from within the ranks; and (13) lack of clarity and mutual agreement in matters of appeal procedure.—*John Hay.*

56. Donovan, J. J. Planning postwar personnel policies. *Public Management* 26 (1) January, 1945: 4-9.—Cities will need to build up their staffs to provide prewar levels of service and to meet new demands. Some time after VE day the labor market will be such that the average city can start filling its long unsatisfied personnel needs, and cities must then aggressively recruit the most able personnel. In this connection, postwar projects must be audited in terms of their personnel needed. Cities will need more than the "job security" appeal to attract good employees and will have to meet pay levels prevailing in private industry.

Adequate attention to training, promotion, sick leave and vacation, safe and healthful working conditions, and a soundly conceived retirement plan will also be needed to attract talented people. The postwar pay outlook involves a leveling off of basic pay rates at a compromise point which is consistent with anticipated municipal revenues and which at the same time avoids a sharp downward reverse that might contribute to a postwar depression. The acid test of cost-of-living pay plans will come when the same formulas are applied in reverse, resulting in pay reductions commensurate with decreased living costs. The employment of veterans involves the reinstatement of former employees and the selection and placement of veterans who are new employees. Although cities plan to take back former employees who have served in the services, it will be difficult to identify their old jobs, their eligibility for pay increases, their relative positions on promotion lists, their seniority credit, etc. The problem is to deal fairly with men and women who comprise our armed forces and at the same time to protect the public interest in the efficiency of the public service. The existing personnel programs of the cities should be reappraised critically to determine whether they will be adequate to cope with the demands of the future. More and more the personnel agency is regarded as an arm of management rather than as a policing agency. This constructive approach can be given force and effect through such means as in-service training programs, and flexible transfer and promotion policies.—*William C. Rogers.*

57. Litchfield, Edward H., and McCloskey, Robert G. Civil service by constitution. *National Municipal Review* 34 (1) January, 1945: 14-20, 56.—The Michigan state personnel agency has as much authority, financial assistance, and structural independence as can be hoped for in the public service. This was granted by a constitutional amendment adopted in 1940 whose propriety is still debated by students of public administration. While the civil service commission's experience is too short to allow final evaluation, enough evidence has been amassed to be considered in future planning in this field. Besides the conventional units for recruitment and classification, the commission has sections for research and surveys, training, and graphics, all combined in a technical division headed by an assistant state personnel director. A second division of administration, similarly headed, performs office management, transactions, and payroll checking functions. This permits the director to give major attention to broad questions of policy which are particularly important in an agency having so much independent authority. Some unusual measures have been adopted which speed position allocation reviews and class revisions. Compensation is handled as a separate problem to allow continuous study and to divert salary pressures from classification decisions. Regular item analysis procedure is improving tests and contributing to good will for the agency. Positive recruitment is more advanced than in many jurisdictions but still falls short of ideal results. Pre-and in-service training,

in cooperation with state and other educational organizations, is receiving great emphasis. A novel function of organizational surveys has resulted in substantial decreases in costs and numbers of personnel, as well as unmeasured improvement in performance, in the ten state agencies thus far surveyed. Two refresher surveys have been requested. The commission has also pioneered in proposing the actuarial retirement system for state employees recently adopted by the legislature. Annual cost of the program of the Michigan agency has been about \$22 per employee.—*Mildred Stier.*

58. Warner, Kenneth O. and Prouty, Dwight, Jr. The function of personnel administration at top management levels. *Personnel* 21 (3) November, 1944: 139-45.—In industry and government today there is a serious shortage of intelligent young persons capable of advancement to high executive positions. War necessity has forced government, industry, and the armed forces to use young persons at responsible levels of administration. To maintain and further use these newly discovered executive skills a case can be made for the executive personnel function. The concept is one of isolating as a special function, or assigning to one individual, complete responsibility for the application of approved personnel management techniques to all executive personnel matters. The relative place of the executive personnel function in the organization will of course depend largely on the size of the organization. In any case, however, the function should be established within the area of top management. Duties of the person responsible for the executive personnel function are many and varied, but basically they consist of high level personnel analysis and planning. The qualifications for this type of work include past executive experience, leadership, a well integrated personality, and objectivity. The operating relationships of the executive personnel officer should tie in with and complement customary personnel operations. (Organization chart showing the functional relationships of the executive personnel officer is included.)—*Robert M. Hart.*

#### CLASSIFICATION; PAY

59. Westerman, Hester. Detroit agencies classify personnel. *The Compass* 26 (2) January, 1945: 3-8.—In 1942, a personnel committee with membership representing agencies supported by the Council of Social Agencies of Metropolitan Detroit was created with the objective of developing a uniform classification plan for local health and welfare agencies. To date, 94 classifications in 6 occupational groups have been established. For the social service group, job descriptions were supplemented by statements of qualification requirements which apply in hiring new employees and in promotion of current employees. The social service group includes three series: social case worker, group worker, and group work supervisor. In addition to the classification plan, two student financial aid plans were adopted. A student stipend plan provides aid to graduate students in social work en-

gaged in full-time field work who have been employed by a Community Fund agency for six months or more. A scholarship plan gives aid to prospective employees of Community Fund agencies who are students in a school of social work. Of the two objectives sought by the personnel committee, the first, that of creating greater equity in salary payments among employees, has been attained. The additional objective of improving worker qualifications may not be realized for a period of years.—Charles W. Fredriksen.

### RECRUITMENT; SELECTION INDUCTION

60. Adkins, Dorothy C. *Test construction in public personnel administration. Educational and Psychological Measurement* 4 (2) Summer, 1944: 141-60.—The tremendous responsibility of predicting actual efficiency on the job has been met by a growing reliance on objective examining processes. Training and experience ratings, included on the assumption that they would be reflected in job performance, were found unable to bear the weight of the examination in view of their subjectivity and unreliability. Personality characteristics are best measured by the oral interview, and, for any position involving the operation of machines, a performance test is usually included. However, no part of the examination process is so significant or should bear so much weight as a well constructed written examination. Effective construction of a written test is contingent upon a competent job analysis summarized in realistic class specifications. Content is limited by facilities available for securing or constructing items and is molded by the "face validity" of the examination, or how practical it appears to be to the public. The use of speed tests is also limited by public opinion which is more favorable to the power type. However, when speed is a component of job proficiency, achievement of the best possible prediction from the examination will in the end outweigh any advantage gained from omitting a speed test. The use of a large number of objective items is in general preferable to reliance on essay questions. Test scoring should be objective and as simple as possible; unweighted and weighted scores for large numbers of items correlate so highly that little is to be gained by differential weighting. The advantages of repeated use of items must be balanced against the knowledge that public support can best be obtained when assurance is given that no appreciable advantage could accrue to any candidate because of previous use of items. Inclusion of a few statistically poor items, from the point of view of validity and reliability, may have almost negligible effect if the test is long enough. However, in a civil service test, even a slight difference may determine the passing or failing mark, and a few poor items may, if publicized, undermine public support of the merit principle. The validity of the test, its power to predict performance on the job, is almost impossible to determine on the basis of the criterion of evaluation of job performance as no reliable means to obtain such evaluations is now known. Customarily, an internal criterion is used. The passing or critical score

is sometimes predetermined and sometimes obtained by transmuting; upward transmuting is to be preferred to downward. No particular advantage is attached to setting the critical score at a "break" in the distribution. In compiling material for tests which must be presented on the same day, overlapping material is justified from the point of view of the candidates and of the agency. In spite of the final problem to be mentioned, budgetary limitations, the notable progress of the last decade places on those in the field an obligation for continued effort toward the solution of the critical problems that remain.—Joan C. Lambert.

61. Bingham, William E., Jr. *A study of the presence of the examiner upon test scores in individual testing. Journal of Applied Psychology* 28 (6) December, 1944: 471-76.—An attempt was made to measure the effect of the examiner's presence upon test scores in individual testing. The results provide a check on the validity of selection test procedures where the occupation is of a relatively solitary character. Steadiness, typing, and addition tests were given to the same subjects in the examiner's presence and then alone. In the examiner's presence the subjects made more errors in each test, and were less efficient, especially in typing, than when working alone. Subjects typed no more words and scored no higher as a group in the examiner's presence, but they added more columns and made better addition scores than when adding alone. Verbal reports by the subjects indicated that the examiner, to a large degree, was the stimulus for these effects. The results point to a need for further research.—Norman J. Powell.

62. Engelhart, Max D. *How teachers can improve their tests. Educational and Psychological Measurement* 4 (2) Summer, 1944: 109-24.—The chief function of a teacher is directing and motivating pupils toward the attainment of desirable and well-defined educational objectives. When valid tests of these objectives are devised, attainment can be measured. Test results, adequately analyzed and interpreted, aid the teacher in orienting instruction and motivate pupils through knowledge of progress. Although instructional objectives are most usefully defined in terms of observable behavior, many must necessarily be concerned with factual information. A representative sampling of pupil factual knowledge can be obtained through the use of objective tests designed with consideration for the relevance of facts and their specific contribution to further learning. In writing true-false exercises, the teacher should usually avoid broad generalizations. In multiple-answer exercises the "best answer" is preferable to the "correct answer" technique because where several choices are correct the pupil is forced to judge the "best" completion, thus exercising discriminative thinking. Another type of item which provokes discriminative thinking lists numerous facts which the pupil is required to classify in certain ways. The modern tendency in testing the ability to read intelligently, an important general objective, is so to construct items that wrong answers are wrong in a specific



way. Then through analysis of a student's pattern of alternative answers it is possible to discover tendencies in his mental habits. All test items should be carefully evaluated by other teachers who have the same educational objectives. In any balanced testing program some essay exercises should be included and should present novel problematic situations rather than "fact" questions. Ratings should be based not only on correctness of facts but also upon evidences of superior selection, evaluation, and organization. After a test has been given and scored, the data should be subjected to analysis. Short-answer items may be analyzed through use of item-test correlation. A low or negative correlation indicates a bad exercise, a wrong key, or an irrelevant item. The amount of work involved in these analyses is merited by the improvement in testing programs which results and by a corresponding improvement in teaching itself.—Mildred I. Fahlen.

63. Jurgensen, Clifford E. Report on the "classification inventory," a personality test for industrial use. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 28 (6) December, 1944: 445-60.—The *Classification Inventory* is a personality test designed for use in industrial employment situations. The test was developed to meet the following requirements: applicants must not be able to predict "right" answers; replies should not be forced into non-diagnostic categories; the test should be scored and validated in terms of jobs, not traits; test validation should be on a population group similar to that with which the test is to be used. Considerable methodological and statistical detail is given, describing the way the test and the scoring system were developed. The test contains 45 groups of three items each and 55 paired comparison forms. The test consists of the indication of preferences among stated personal situations, types of persons, and the like. Satisfactory validity and reliability for the test were found upon application to salesmen and graduate students, a different scoring key being used for each group. At the present time, however, the *Inventory* must be considered as being in an experimental stage, requiring considerably more research before definite conclusions can be drawn other than its appearance of promise.—Norman J. Powell.

64. Lemon, Roger T. and Baxter, Brent. Predictable aspects of clerical work. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 29 (1) February, 1945: 1-14.—Many attempts have been made to evaluate the efficiency of clerical aptitude tests by correlation between test scores and some measure of success in clerical work. Few attempts have been made, however, to determine what specific aspects of clerical work are related to scores on the more commonly used tests. A group of 250 non-supervisory clerical workers in a large government agency were selected for study. They had all taken a "Learning Ability Test" (an adaptation of Army Alpha Kansas Revision), and a clerical aptitude test, and had been employed at least three months. A check list was prepared for each employee consisting of 90 statements descriptive of the subject's work. Each statement was

marked "True," "Not True," "Don't Know," or "Not Pertinent." Analysis was undertaken to determine which of the check list items related to each of their employment tests, that is, could have been predicted by them. The check list items were then grouped into twelve categories such as "Understanding of the work," "Errors in performance," and "Performance of multiple tasks." The number of items under each group which were predicted by the tests and which were not predicted were computed. In general the tests did predict to some extent several aspects of clerical ability, but did not predict specific skills such as typing and shorthand, or knowledges such as grammar and statistics. No prediction of "personality factors" resulted.—Kenneth C. Dougan.

65. Steel, M., Balinsky, B., and Long, H. A study of the use of a work sample. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 29 (1) 14-21.—Over a period of two months the O'Rourke "ringing an electric bell" work sample was given to a group of 86 individuals selected at random. The work sample requires the subject to assemble, in accordance with written instructions, an electric bell, a push-button, three feet of wire, and a dry-cell, using a penknife, a pair of cutting pliers, a screwdriver, and a ruler. Materials and tools are placed before him in a standardized manner and the performance is timed. The subjects were also given such tests as the O'Connor finger and tweezer dexterity tests; the Minnesota rate of manipulation, placing, and turning tests; the Minnesota spatial relations test; and the O'Rourke vocabulary test. Subjects were then interviewed concerning their experience in related activities, and the relative "interestingness" and difficulty of the work sample and the other tests. Several conclusions were drawn. The work sample had low correlations with the dexterity tests. A significant sex difference was obtained on the work sample for the group used in this study. This sex difference should be considered as preliminary and might possibly be attributed to differences in degree and kind of experience possessed by the males and females in this sampling. The time taken to complete the work sample was related to the amount of experience. Those with some experience completed the work unit in less time than those with little or no experience. The work sample was liked best by most individuals tested, both male and female, although a greater percentage found it more difficult than the dexterity tests.—H. Richard Rice.

## TRAINING

66. Planty, Earl G. New methods for evaluating supervisor training. *Personnel* 21 (4) January, 1945: 235-42.—An examination of current supervisor training programs leads to two basic recommendations: (1) some system of evaluation must be instituted if supervisor training is to justify its existence in the years to come, (2) that system of evaluation must be more scientific, more reliable, and infinitely more practical than the usual academic paper-and-pencil test approach or the brazen soliciting and publishing of testimonials. One of the newer and more reliable methods



employed in the evaluation of supervisor training is to study the leader's performance. On the assumption that a well-planned learning situation should result in good learning, the rating of a conference leader's performance will give some measure of the effectiveness of the training. If the teaching meets acceptable standards, it can reasonably be expected that certain improvements in operation will follow. Another technique which is considered to have validity and reliability is the scientific measurement of conditions before and after training. The increase in suggestions for improved methods, in participation in company activities, and in measured production, or the decrease in turnover, absenteeism, grievances, waste, spoilage, learning time, etc., provide fairly objective data for evaluation. A third method involves visiting supervisors while they are engaged in their daily work to observe the application of the principles discussed in the training course. This last method, in addition to its benefit as an evaluation method, enables the observer to further the training program by assisting in the solution of an actual supervising problem. Only as trainers make a thorough, conscientious effort to measure present accomplishments can they promise a useful post-war future for the training activity. (A check list for evaluating conference leaders' performance is included in the article.)—*Adrian E. Gory.*

67. McFeely, Wilbur M., and Mussman, William M. **Training supervisors in leadership.** *Personnel* 21 (4) January, 1945: 217-24.—The "case method" of supervisory training is an original adaptation of an old principle used by many progressive firms. With slight alterations, the program may be applied to any company, and it is sufficiently flexible to be used with supervisory groups of diversified backgrounds. Thirty-six case studies embodying the principles of good leadership were selected as course material. The program consists of from six to twelve two-hour sessions, depending upon the amount of previous training and experience of the participants. The program has effectively stimulated thinking, which is the first requisite to the development of proper attitude, which in turn develops proper action. Although principles of leadership can never be reduced to the exactitude of a science, success in their use does require the systematic application of acquired skills and techniques. Underlying these acquired skills there must be a foundation of above-average intelligence, health, and energy. If these requirements are present, then the type of leadership necessary to success in supervision can be developed by a careful analysis of fundamentals and by their consistent application. Most trainee groups are agreed on the principles underlying good leadership; the difficulty lies in securing application of these principles to specific situations. Experience has shown that the most profitable way in which to discuss leadership is to examine actual cases critically, and by analysis to draw out workable principles. Experience has also shown that trainees show a strong desire to reach a reasonably definite answer to each case problem.—*Achille R. Albouze.*

68. Reining, Henry, Jr. **The first federal in-service internship program.** *Personnel Administration* 7 (4) December, 1944: 8-20.—It is now possible to make an evaluative summary of the first in-service internship training program for junior administrators in the federal service. Carefully chosen employees were selected through a committee of the Council of Personnel Administration for an intensive program sponsored by the National Institute of Public Affairs. Thirty-two persons from eighteen agencies, after a thorough orientation course giving a rapid but broad overview of the work of the federal government and the functions of federal agencies, began rotating work assignments. These varied assignments were designed to include administrative activity, to give a variety of experience, and to give the interns experience in types of work different from their former duties. The interns carried work at local universities after hours in order to regain study habits and to secure degree credit. In addition to the testing program for selection and a continuing check on progress, each intern was assigned to a counselor who gave educational, vocational, and personal guidance during the internship period. The training program was rounded out by seminars and group meetings. Success of the internship training may be measured, on the one hand, in the up-grading and advancement of the interns into administrative positions. From the standpoint of agency benefit, on the other hand, new talent was uncovered, training needs were recognized, and, it is anticipated, work effectiveness was increased. Not least of the gains was the heightened morale and enthusiasm for the plan on the part of both interns and participating agencies. Further study and amplification of the program is needed to verify these tentative results. (Article contains a detailed listing of subjects and speakers for the group orientation schedule and tables analyzing the experience and educational backgrounds of the interns.)—*Morton Friedman.*

69. Roberts, Samuel M. and McCabe, Willis R. **Training municipal employees on the job.** *Public management* 27 (2) February, 1945: 40-43.—San Diego's city council recently approved a comprehensive program of in-service and pre-entry training for city employees in cooperation with the school system. An advisory committee prepared training plans for each department and evaluates current programs. Beginning with top city and departmental administrators, who attend a preliminary orientation session, the program provides training on management and conference leadership for superintendents and department heads; training-within-service conferences on job methods and job instruction for directors, foremen, and supervisors; and a continuous series of monthly follow-up conferences for each group. This training series will be accompanied by a program of revising job specifications where necessary, making new job analyses, preparing training timetables and organization charts, and developing apprenticeship training. Induction training is planned for relating the work of new employees to the whole municipal structure as well as

for improved performance on their jobs. A pre-employment training service might be rendered by vocational schools where needed. Regular supplementary job training will be planned for increasing present employees' skills for work improvement and possible promotion. An occupational information service will be necessary to keep employees informed of training matters and to recruit for departmental needs. No immediate dollars-and-cents returns are expected from this program, but as a tool of management it is hoped that it will improve job standards and morale over a period of time.—*John A. Ohlson.*

70. Stanley, David T. G. I. lessons in training. *Personnel Administration* 7 (4) December, 1944: 26-29.—The U. S. Army has accomplished amazing training feats, such as teaching illiterates to read and write in three months and making it possible for soldiers to converse in foreign languages in a few weeks. To accomplish these and many other wonders, the Army Training Officer has utilized only sound, basic training principles, which can be applied with equal effectiveness to the training of civilian governmental employees. The approach has been to recognize officially that the training of personnel is a major part of operations, not a sideline or an extra. In contrast to many civilian administrators, the Army provides officially for training, just as it does for operations, planning, intelligence, and supply. Realism in the learning process is achieved, as far as possible, by having the training situation resemble the working (or fighting) situation. In all its fields of instruction, the Army's method of teaching is guided practice. A positive effort is made to stimulate the trainees' desire to learn. At the end of each training unit, each student is tested to be sure that learning has actually taken place. Rechecking is done regularly thereafter. Thorough and generous provision is made for the training of instructors. The Army selects its best technicians to instruct and then trains them how to teach effectively. Centralized control of teaching material and techniques also insures uniformity in training from camp to camp. The Army differentiates between essential training and that which is merely helpful. It limits official, during-hours training to that which is vitally needed for effective operations, and it also provides supplemental training for off-duty hours which contributes indirectly to Army efficiency and morale.—*Alice E. Kennedy.*

71. Unsigned. Developing department heads. *Public Management* 27 (3) March, 1945: 66-70.—The city manager's success depends in very large measure upon the effectiveness of his department heads who must be "self-starters," operating without prodding and direction from the manager. The development of department heads is a problem of training in the broadest sense and is the responsibility of the chief administrator. The city manager has at his disposal a wide range of "tools" for developing his department heads. These include encouragement to participate in professional organizations, to read in their respective fields, to make

inspection trips to other cities, and to seek further formal education. Staff meetings which are handled as training conferences and formal in-service training programs are an important part of a well-rounded developmental plan. Inspections of departments by the manager and surveys by outside consultants are useful methods which also can be employed. The city manager should always be looking for administrative talent to fill future key positions and the safest policy is to let the understudy "pick himself out" rather than to select arbitrarily. In this way an incentive is given to employees to do better work. The solution to weaknesses is often a direct approach involving a man-to-man talk. The lazy man sometimes improves when given more work; however, dismissal or salary reduction may be the only answer. Positive incentives for improvement are the best methods and these may include raising questions with self-complacent heads about the operation of their departments. Asking questions is often a better way to stimulate department heads than giving answers. The administrative officer who is afraid of responsibility must not be treated too critically when he has made a decision and these decisions must be supported by the manager. Responsibility should be given gradually to such a man so that his confidence has time to develop. The manager should refuse to make his decisions for him. The administrative officer who refuses to delegate responsibility must be forcibly impressed that his job is to make decisions and not to do routine or clerical work. Department heads who neglect public relations must be brought to see that public satisfaction with services is as important as the character of the services themselves and that the two are really inseparable.—*William C. Rogers.*

#### WORK TERMS; CONDITIONS OF EMPLOYMENT

72. Stockford, LeBaron O. Chronic absentee and good attendant. *Personnel Journal* 23 (6) December, 1944: 202-207.—An attempt to obtain material regarding economic, social, and psychological factors which may differentiate the chronic absentee from the employee with a good attendance record produced interesting results. Of 200 Lockheed nonsupervisory production employees investigated by means of questionnaire and company records, one hundred were absent for from 15 to 132 working days during a six-month period, while the other 100 had no absences. The records of the absentees showed such information as the following: they were placed on jobs unrelated to their training and experience, they disliked the work, they had been refused transfers, and they were socially and economically unstable. The non-absentee group showed the opposite responses to the same factors. Reasons for absences were illness (64 per cent), unauthorized leaves (26 per cent), and authorized leaves (10 per cent). Attitude, dependability, and quantity of work were the three factors on merit review sheets on which the two groups evidenced the greatest difference. Absenteeism is caused most often by the following factors arranged in order of importance: illness, home

responsibilities, improper job placement, fatigue, and transportation. Absenteeism is least influenced by: inadequate tooling, job shopping, and poor housing.—*Nesta M. Gallas.*

### EMPLOYEE RELATIONS

73. Rogers, Carl R. **The development of insight in a counseling relationship.** *Journal of Consulting Psychology* 8 (6) November-December, 1944: 331-41.—It is recognized that once an individual genuinely understands his behavior, and accepts that understanding, he is able to adopt a more realistic and satisfactory control of his actions, is less likely to hurt others to gain satisfaction, and in general can become more mature. This understanding of self we customarily call insight. We find rather general agreement that the achievement of insight is the keystone of the process of therapy. Insight involves such elements as: (1) an acceptance of one's impulses and attitudes, good or bad, including attitudes previously repressed; (2) an understanding of the patterning of one's behavior and the perception of new relationships; (3) a fresh perception of reality made possible by this acceptance and understanding of the self; and (4) the planning of new and more satisfying ways in which the self can adjust to reality. It has been found that in counseling situations of a non-directive character, new perceptions and understandings of self develop in spontaneous fashion. These insights are of various types, some relatively simple, some highly complex and going to the root of the behavior patterns of the individual. Research shows that these insights develop gradually in a non-directive counseling situation and mount to a peak toward the conclusion of the counseling experience. They follow free expression of negative emotion, are closely connected with a positive change in the self concept, and are accompanied or followed by plans and decisions which involve the alteration of behavior. Insights are not likely to follow counselor procedures which evaluate, question, probe, advise, or interpret. They are likely to develop if the counselor uses responses which are accepting and clarifying. Procedures which make defensiveness on the part of the client completely unnecessary, but which make the client feel that he is deeply understood, are most successful.—*Robert A. Holloway.*

74. Snyder, Louise M. **Counseling—bridge between management and worker.** *Factory Management and Maintenance* 103 January, 1945: 129-33.—Counseling bomber builders at Bell Aircraft, Georgia Division, has three important aspects. First, it helps the worker. On his first day of work the employee is taken on a tour of the plant by his counselor. With such personalized introduction to the company he is given a sense of "belonging" and is also made aware of the opportunity for counsel if need should arise. Counselors are chosen for their understanding of the human machine and for their own normal adjustment and freedom

from frustrations and prejudices. After a week's training program including study of a company text, counseling begins under close supervision until sufficient insight is attained. In order to facilitate rapid adaptation, the counselor is given a reference manual of company information and typical problems. Her principal effort is to bring out all factors involved in a problem in order that the employee may enlarge his perspective and, with help, work out his own solution adequately. A second phase of the counseling program is that of interpreting employees' reactions to management. To this end weekly trend reports in standardized form are submitted to show the nature of requests and complaints. These reports avoid identifying any employees. Thus, the employee has the advantage of making his views known to management without the personal disadvantage of criticizing someone to whom he must look for rating or raises. Motivating community action is a third phase of the program. Through information, suggestions, and complaints presented to the counselor, needs are revealed for community action in such matters as enlargement of facilities for child care, recreation, or shopping. Such needs are reported to the appropriate city officials or social planning council. On the other side of the picture the counselors help in interpreting community services to employees.—*Gordon W. Peterson.*

### SEPARATION; RETIREMENT

75. McCloskey, Robert G. **The case for foot-in-the door.** *National Municipal Review* 34 (3) March, 1945: 122-124, 128.—A study of the merit system in the Michigan state government indicates that the "foot-in-the door" principle in dealing with dismissals and appeals has worked well. The legislative act which created the Civil Service Commission in 1937 provided for the "open back door" and denied the commission power to reinstate employees whose dismissals were found to be unjustified. The commission could only return such employees to the "reemployment register." A new commission established in 1941 by a constitutional provision adopted a policy assigning original authority in dismissals to the appointing officer, but reserving to the commission the right to reverse a case when the employee could show evidence that his removal had been arbitrary or unreasonable. This "foot-in-the door" policy was designed to steer a middle course between the unlimited freedom of the open back door and the paralysis of the closed back door. In comparison with the "open door" period, the annual discharge rate was reduced between 1941 and 1943 from more than 10 per cent of the total employees to about 3 per cent; unjustified dismissals were reduced from 20 per cent of total dismissals to 1½ per cent; the ratio of appeals from dismissals was lowered from one out of two in 1941 to one out of six in 1943; and, finally, the 1943 "quit rate" was below that for private industry.—*Ray Mullins.*